The Nation

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The Nation

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The Week

THE crumbling structure of German influence in Europe will receive another heavy blow if, as seems more likely now than ever, diplomatic relations between Spain and Germany are broken off. The continued depredations of German submarines upon Spanish commerce, joined to the revelations of German intrigue in Spain which the espionage trials are bringing out, have appealed to Spanish pride and honor as well as to economic and political interests. In a Cabinet statement, made public on August 21, the Imperial German Government was formally notified that, in case submarine sinkings continued, the Spanish Government would be compelled, on account of the shortage of tonnage, to make good the loss by taking over, for the period of the war, German vessels interned in Spanish ports. To this proposal the German Government at once returned an energetic protest, and intimated that such action as was threatened might result in a severance of diplomatic relations. The threat has not deterred the Spanish Government, however, for the seizure of German ships is reported to have begun. It is clear that this places Germany in an uncomfortable quandary. To abandon submarine warfare would be to give up one of Germany's most effective weapons. On the other hand, to grant exemption to Spanish vessels, especially in view of formal protests and retaliation by the Spanish Government, would almost certainly open the way to similar demands from other neutrals. The Cologne *Gazette*, while insisting that "this is the time to keep a stiff upper lip and continue fighting," admits that "if Spain joins America, our position will be worse, materially and morally." Meantime, it is reported that negotiations with the United States for a loan to Spain of from $60,000,000 to $100,000,000 are proceeding satisfactorily.

THE more the plans of the Allies who are intervening in Russia are unfolded, the more dubious becomes the outlook. An official announcement, issued by representatives of Great Britain, France, and the United States at Archangel on August 22, but not made public in this country until August 26, brands as "not true" the assertion of Lenine and Trotsky that the Allied forces are the enemies of Russia, and declares that the forces at Archangel are not only "the allies of Russia," but that they "were invited to make a landing here by the legitimate Government and with complete and unanimous agreement on the part of the people." This "legitimate Government," which was overthrown "by the illegitimate Bolsheviki," is declared to rest upon the Constituent Assembly "as the only rightful Russian Government." The aim of the Allies, accordingly, is to expel the Germans and suppress "by force of arms" the Brest-Litovsk treaty, but not to mix in Russian internal affairs. The two things that are clear in this pronouncement are the intention of the Allies to recognize any local revolutionary Government that suits their plans, and to put down the Bolsheviki by force. The prompt snuffing out of General Horvath's claims to dictatorship in eastern Siberia appears to be in accord with the action taken at Archangel. Reports concerning the Czecho-Slovaks are conflicting, but it does not yet seem probable that they will soon be extricated from their predicament. Unless, however, the United States calls a halt in the Allied programme, there is every indication that the military force in Russia will soon be largely increased, and that the peaceful rehabilitation of the country will rapidly resolve itself into military conquest and occupation, with Japan taking the lead.

MEANTIME it is apparent enough that Russia is seething with revolution. The reported death of Lenine by assassination turns out to have been untrue; but the presence of foreign troops, supporting one Government here and opposing another there, will encourage every revolutionary group or faction which aspires to make something out of the disorder to try its hand. The spectre of famine looms larger day by day. Serious riots are reported from Petrograd and Moscow, where the shortage of food, the struggle of factions, and the severe repression resorted to by the Bolsheviki, have created conditions resembling a reign of terror. What the German plans are has not yet been divulged. Three treaties, however, supplementary to the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, are reported to have been signed by German and Russian plenipotentiaries on August 27. According to the *North German Gazette*, a semi-official organ, the treaties assure the independence of the Baltic provinces of Russia. On the other hand, Russia agrees to recognize the independence of Georgia, in the Caucasus; to pay to Germany 6,000,000,000 marks as compensation for losses due to Russian "revolutionary confiscatory legislation"; and to grant to Germany concessions in the Baku oil fields. Of the 6,000,000,000 marks indemnity, 1,000,000,000 marks is to be paid jointly by Finland and the Ukraine. The supplementary treaties would appear to be in every way as reprehensible as the treaty of Brest-Litovsk itself. A touch of grim humor is added to the weird Russian situation by the announcement, received through German-Swiss-French channels, that the Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Protestant religions have been formally suppressed, and that a new religion, "co-Christianity," is henceforth to be alone accorded official recognition.

THE resignation of Ambassador Page, officially ascribed to ill health, comes as a surprise to both the American and the British public. Like most American diplomats, Mr. Page was wholly without diplomatic experience at the time of his appointment to the British mission in 1913, nor had he held public office. His reputation in this country rested upon his successful career as editor of the *Forum*, the *Atlantic*, and the *World's Work*, of which latter magazine he was editor at the time of his appointment, and upon his active interest in various good causes, such as education in the South. Although comparatively unknown in England, he nevertheless won at the outset the regard and esteem of the British public by his dignity and courtesy and his gifts as a public speaker. Mr. Page did little to improve the business methods of the American Embassy

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at London, but there should be nothing but praise for his success in representing the interests of the United States and interpreting the ideas and policies of President Wilson during the trying period from August, 1914, to April, 1917. The declaration of war by the United States added immensely to his labors, at the same time that it improved his official position by clearing the air. More than in any other country, an American Ambassador is in England expected to be also a man of letters, or at least of literary culture; and Mr. Page, in his numerous addresses on public or formal occasions has maintained the traditions of the office. He may well take pride in the consciousness of having contributed, under circumstances of unparalleled complexity and anxiety, to a better mutual understanding between the two great English-speaking peoples.

MR. PAGE'S unexpected retirement calls attention to the changes which have taken place during the war in the personnel and character of our diplomatic service. The German, Austrian, and Turkish posts are, of course, vacant. The Ambassador to Italy, Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, has continued in office since 1913, as has Mr. Reinsch, the American representative at Peking; while the term of Minister Egan at Copenhagen dates from 1907. So rapid and general have been the diplomatic changes in France that Mr. Sharpe, who was appointed only in 1914, now finds himself the dean of the diplomatic corps at the French capital. The service of Mr. Francis in Russia, still continuing in uncertain fashion in spite of revolutions and changes of government, dates only from 1916. More significant than the change in incumbents, however, is the change which has taken place in the character of the office. No longer is the Minister of any country accorded much discretion. Between the telegraph, the cable, and the wireless, a foreign representative is now brought into daily or even hourly contact with his home Government, and serves as little more than its mouthpiece. Mr. Wilson, in particular, appears to have treated American diplomatic representatives in much the same way that he has treated Cabinet officers, consulting them irregularly or not at all, and taking all important diplomatic business into his own hands. The result is a series of careers like those of Mr. Walter Hines Page, in which the faithful performance of routine duties, varied by occasional addresses on public occasions, make up by far the larger part of the diplomat's achievement.

MR. GOMPERS appears to be having the time of his life in England. Mr. Lloyd George has called him a great man and said some nice things about him, and Mr. Roberts, the Minister of Labor, has seized the occasion presented by an official banquet to call him "Sam" and to rap Mr. Arthur Henderson and the international conference scheme over Mr. Gompers's shoulders. M. J. Havelock Wilson, of the Merchants' Seamen's Union, naturally welcomes with satisfaction the arrival of another uncompromising opponent of all discussion with the enemy. Mr. Gompers, meantime, cannily refrains from public comment upon British politics, doubtless saving himself for the trade-union congress at Derby. No one in this country, surely, will begrudge Mr. Gompers any pleasure that he may get out of his trip, especially if the expenses of himself and his associates are not paid by the British Government, as were those, it is said, of the labor "commission" which visited England and the Continent a few months ago. What is greatly to be hoped, however, is that neither the British Government nor the British people will allow themselves to rest under any misapprehensions regarding Mr. Gompers's true character, and that Mr. Gompers himself will have his eyes opened. He is undoubtedly a representative of the Administration, but he is a true representative of American labor only to the extent that he speaks for a political majority in the American Federation of Labor. For the increasing numbers in that great organization who have long opposed his leadership, and who may before long show their strength in the fall elections, as well as for the millions of industrial and agricultural laborers who do not belong to the Federation, he has no right to speak. Only if he abandons his provincial outlook and sees the world labor problem as a whole will his present excursion be entitled to be accounted a national gain.

THAT the Fuel Administration's fondness for sudden and drastic orders was not abated by its experience with heatless Mondays last winter is made clear by its request for the immediate cessation of all pleasure use of automobiles, motor boats, and motorcycles on Sundays during the next few weeks, in order to conserve gasolene. With this request is coupled the threat of an official prohibition, if necessary. It will not be necessary; the public has gladly responded to the request, although it works considerable hardship by cutting in upon the vacations of many whose week-end trips are their sole outing, and upon the farmers whose sole recreation is a Sunday drive in a Ford. The Fuel Administration sees very clearly the difficulty of differentiating between the uses of cars. Nothing, for instance, is more misleading than to call all touring cars pleasure vehicles. Many business firms find the use of passenger motor cars indispensable to the conduct of their work; and what looks like a pleasure car may be of vital importance to an agriculturist, or to a resident of the country where there are no other means of travel. Nevertheless, the public everywhere will cheerfully coöperate with Mr. Garfield; only it will be wise to remember that the man whom you see driving a car on Sunday may have an entirely legitimate reason for being on the road, and only fair to withhold criticism until the facts are known.

THE steel industry, usually regarded as one of the indices of the general state of trade, is facing an urgent plea from the Government for greatly increased output at the same time that employees are apparently on the point of demanding increased pay. Figures from Washington, given out in connection with the recent meeting of iron and steel manufacturers in New York, show that the demands of the United States and the Allies for steel for the last six months of the present year already aggregate 23,000,000 tons, and are likely to amount to 25,000,000 tons. The capacity of rolling mills, on the other hand, does not exceed 18,000,000 tons. One of the chief factors in the increased demand from overseas is the rapid advance of the Allies, involving enhanced consumption of rails, rolling stock, and shell steel. There is little prospect that production, already somewhat checked by the hot weather of August, will equal the demand; if it does not, the only way to meet the requirements of the war programme will be to curtail still further the use of steel at home. It is not clear, either, that increased wages will result in increased output. Wages in

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the steel industry are already unprecedentedly high. A prominent manufacturer, who "for very obvious reasons" refuses to allow himself to be quoted by name, complains that puddlers in the steel mills "are making as high as $30 a day and are going to work in their automobiles." Since January 1, 1916, it is stated, the wages of the employees of the United States Steel Corporation have advanced 103.7 per cent. Under the circumstances a demand for further increase would be a matter of serious concern to the Government as well as to the manufacturers.

REPRESENTATIVE KEATING, of Colorado, has introduced in the House a child-labor bill which, its supporters hope, will meet the objection which the Supreme Court, in a recent decision, found to the child-labor law of September 1, 1916. The law, it will be remembered, aimed to abolish child labor by prohibiting the transportation in interstate or foreign commerce of commodities in the production of which child labor had been employed. The Supreme Court, dividing five to four, held that such prohibition did not fall within the interstate commerce provision of the Constitution, and that the law on that account was void. The present bill, drawn by a joint committee of the National Child Labor Committee and the American Federation of Labor, and said to have the approval of President Wilson, aims to avoid the constitutional objection by declaring that the prohibition of child labor which it embodies is "for the purpose of conserving the man-power of the nation and thereby more effectively providing for the national security and defence." Whether or not this appeal to the "war power" will be effectual can, of course, only be determined when the bill, if it shall become a law, shall again be submitted to the scrutiny of the court. Heartily as we would welcome the total disappearance of child labor throughout the United States, we must nevertheless point out that the Supreme Court, in its decision, expressly stated that the law before it invoked the Federal power over interstate commerce for the purpose of regulating a matter which was purely a State affair, and was in a twofold sense repugnant to the Constitution. We are not clear that "a purely local matter to which the Federal authority does not extend" (to quote the language of the decision) can or ought to be invaded by the Federal Government even under the guise of conserving man-power or insuring better national security and defence. If it can, the constitutional rights of the States would seem to be of little importance.

THE influence of labor is clearly shown in the striking out of the clause in the new Draft bill providing for the immediate automatic drafting into the army of any workers engaged in essential industries who may strike during the war. Secretary Baker and the military men favored it, but it was nevertheless dropped, and rightly so, for it was a bold, unblushing step towards industrial conscription, such as has not been attempted anywhere save that it was threatened in the recent engineers' strike in England. Labor is wise in not allowing the head of the labor conscription camel to get into the tent; the body would inevitably follow. Many large employers will be disappointed; for there are those among them who are working for universal military service because of their recollection of how Briand settled the railway strike in France, by calling out the strikers as reservists by a stroke of the pen. As for the new conscription law itself, since the passage of the first act another was inevitable, and the country as a whole acquiesces in the earnest desire to have the war ended soon—in 1919, if possible. The public is ready to "see it through," and the bill went through Congress with little delay. Its consequences in the way of social and labor readjustments will be most interesting to follow.

ON the other hand, the decision of the War Industries Board to defer the building of seventeen much-needed public schools in New York will come as a shock to all familiar with the pressing needs of the city's school system. Sixty thousand children are already on part time, 25,000 more are expected when school opens, and the loss of high-school pupils is not so great as to make possible extensive consolidation of classes and the freeing of many rooms. The decision is a serious blow to education in the metropolis; it is making the school population pay a grave price for the war—a price which certainly appears quite unjustifiable. Yet it must be recorded, in justice to the War Industries Board, that the action was not taken until after long and careful inquiry. Nevertheless, the overcrowding of rooms and overworking of teachers are bound to proceed apace. "We shall have," say the authorities, "to crowd the pupils in any old way." What will happen if the war lasts two or three years can hardly be imagined. It is obvious, however, that there will be a marked falling off in literacy and in the efficiency with which pupils, who now number in New York more than 800,000, will be taught. In almost any other city the ruling could be better endured. New York, which is never able to catch up with the demand for school sittings, will now fall hopelessly behind.

ON Tuesday, September 3, there were opened in New York city the first consolidated ticket offices, three in number, of the United States Railroad Administration. The announcement of the change is alluring. The Government offices will sell railway and steamship tickets to all points, provide accommodations in sleeping and parlor cars and on steamships, check luggage, and give advice regarding freight shipments. At each office there is also promised an information bureau, where "information on all travel subjects" will be "promptly and courteously furnished." With the establishment of the Government offices, the city offices of all lines will be discontinued. The change marks another step in the process which has brought all the important railways of the country under Federal control. One cannot but hope that the new system will put an end to "the public be damned" attitude which too many railway employees have for months been assuming, and which Mr. McAdoo has publicly rebuked; and that passenger service, even making all allowance for necessary war restrictions, may now take on something of its old efficiency and comfort. There is no reason why the Government, in addition to discouraging pleasure travel as much as possible, should permit the thousands who must travel to be burdened with vexatious regulations and poor service. It is not yet clear that Government operation of railways can be made to pay; a deficit of $324,000,000 for the first six months is certainly not encouraging. The public will be less critical of the deficit, however, if the needs of passenger and freight traffic are efficiently met. Mr. McAdoo's sweeping prohibition of political activity on the part of railway employees ought to prove to be a long step towards good railway administration.

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The Hindenburg Line and After

BY the time this page is in the hands of the reader, the German army between Arras and the Oise may be back on the line from which it leaped forward on March 21, or so near it as to amount, strategically, to the same thing. Further to the north, in the Lys salient, the probabilities are equally strong of the recapture by the Allies of the territory lost in the German irruption from Armentières last April. Mount Kemmel is once more in British hands, and the entire curve from Kemmel to Givenchy is flattening out under a minimum of Allied pressure. Of the remnants of German gain in the sector furthest south, between the Aisne and the Vesle, one must speak more cautiously. General Mangin is exerting terrific pressure against the western flank of the German wedge towards Soissons, and his efforts may be aided by the approach of the army of General Humbert towards La Fère. But before they consent to go back to the Chemin des Dames we may expect the Germans to put up the very stiffest kind of a fight. It will be something, if not much, to show the people at home a fragment saved out of the wreck of a great hope; and because near Soissons the Germans are closest to Paris, the reluctance to give way here will be all the greater.

At the moment of writing, six and one-half weeks after Foch's counter-offensive on the Marne, the Allies have won back three-fourths of the ground they lost beween March 21 and June 15, more than two-thirds of their prisoners, and the full number of heavy guns. By the time the Hindenburg line—and possibly the Chemin des Dames—is reached and the balance of ground lost and won is completely restored, the credit and debit of prisoners will also be very near to balancing. What is of more importance, the Allies will have won back the initiative both in a military and a moral sense. They will return to their positions of last winter with the consciousness of having met German effort at the climax and frustrated it. They will come back with a superiority in numbers which henceforth must grow heavier in their favor. Finally, they will come back with the consciousness of a leadership superior to that of the Germans in the vital qualities of imagination and genius for rapid action.

At first sight, the gift for swift action would not seem to be predominantly with the Allies. Even in following the unchecked advance of Pétain's and Haig's armies, it must have occurred to the reader that the Allies have won back ground much more slowly than they lost it. Ludendorff drove forward from St. Quentin to Montdidier in five or six days. In the middle of the fourth week of Haig's advance, the British had still to go nearly one-half of the distance back from the Ancre to St. Quentin. In May, the Germans drove forward from the Chemin des Dames to the Marne in four or five days. It was more than two weeks after Mangin struck out from the forest of Villers-Cotterets before the Germans recrossed the Vesle. The Lys salient was overrun in a week last April, and it will be a matter of more than a month before the Allies are back to their old lines. Obviously, however, this showing in favor of the Germans is possible only if we take the four sectors separately—Picardy, Flanders, Marne, and Oise. The Germans won more rapidly because they took on one sector at a time. Their efforts were separated by long breathing spells: two weeks between Picardy and the Lys; six weeks between the Lys and the Aisne; more than a week between the Aisne and the stroke for Compiègne. Foch's battle has been continuous; his time-table was made up and his reserves were gathered in their places along the whole front from Arras to the Champagne before the first stroke was delivered. The Allies have moved forward more slowly in depth because they have travelled on an enormous front. Actually, Foch has moved faster than Ludendorff. If we assume that the Allies will be back at the Hindenburg line by the end of the first week of September, they will have won back in seven weeks nearly everything that it took Ludendorff twelve weeks to gather up.

Both sides have practiced surprise. But on the German side, once the effects of surprise had spent themselves, there was apparently no other trick in reserve. Compare what has happened on the Allied side both on the Marne and in Picardy. The first Mangin stroke fell upon von Boehn on July 18. Ten days later it seemed as if the Allies had been brought to a stand north of the Ourcq. But on August 1 Mangin delivered his second and decisive stroke against the crests of Grand Rozoy. This time it was not a surprise. The blow was expected by the Germans, who brought up three of their crack divisions and were beaten. The retreat across the Vesle became inevitable. So in Picardy; the attack of August 8 was a surprise, but the British advance of August 21 from the Ancre was far from a surprise. The Germans had anticipated it by a series of small voluntary retirements. Yet they lost the battle which followed. Thirteen days elapsed between Mangin's first and second strokes. Thirteen days elapsed between Haig's first and second strokes. It is hard to escape the impression that Foch, during the anxious months of waiting, had elaborated a method of sustained, rhythmic attack.

What will happen when the Allies are once more in contact with the Hindenburg line? Must we expect a return to the old deadlock that can be lifted only by the old methods of break-through—the long and painful preparations, the furious three days' bombardment, the gruelling struggle for furlongs and half-miles? On the surface, that is what the Germans appear to anticipate when they speak of the unimportance of the "desert" between the Somme and the Oise which they created a year and a half ago and which they are now abandoning. If they are right, then a long pause must ensue before Foch makes his attack upon the line between Cambrai and La Fère; provided, of course, that such is his intention. But the method of surprise is a strong presumption against a long deadlock. Under the new method there is no need for piling up vast ammunition dumps and gridironing the terrain with railways. Surprise, as practiced by the Allies, works with much less elaborate preparation. Its essence is the reassertion of the human factor as against the machine. Haig's smash of last Monday against the Wotan switch line shows what "surprise" can do even against permanent defences.

So long as we thought in terms of machinery, of barbed-wire, and terrific bombardments, the Hindenburg line was impregnable. With emphasis on the human factor, on surprise, the Hindenburg line is only a system of defences stronger than ordinary, but by no means immune to attack by an adversary with plenty of human resources at his command. With the initiative in Foch's hands, and with troops enough to establish three or four centres of sudden menace, we may continue to look forward to dramatic developments.

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Higher Education and War

THE Federal Bureau of Education has taken official notice of the task which confronts the nation of keeping up the supply of technical and scientific knowledge necessary not only for the conduct of military operations, but for carrying on essential war industries. In a special report on the subject, just published, the Bureau calls attention to some of the more serious and difficult factors in the problem. The United States is now carrying on military operations of the first order 3,000 miles from its base of supplies and 4,000 miles from the centre of population. That is the task, defined in its simplest terms. Nothing like it has ever been attempted in the world, and the success thus far has been so notable as to fill Americans with imperishable pride. We have already met and overcome engineering difficulties far greater than those of any other nation engaged in the war. The average haul of men, munitions, and supplies is 4,500 miles by land and sea. Transportation alone is a stupendous enterprise, and behind it are the awe-inspiring processes of production. About everything else in connection with America's share in the war there may be two opinions, but there can be only one about the speed and efficiency of her organization to meet the great demand, and the unanimity and diligence of her people in their regimentation. But now, to keep up the steady and abundant flow of war material, we must have an ever-increasing number of men and women of highly specialized training. We are now trustees of the principal remaining source of supply of such specialists, and our centres of production are our educational institutions.

The Bureau reflects the anxiety that many have felt regarding the depletion of the colleges and universities by draft and enlistment. Doubtless the colleges should not actively discourage recruiting; but whether that be so or not, it would have been impossible for them to have done it, even if they had regarded such a course as the part of wisdom and true patriotism. Now, however, following the suggestion of the Board, they can make it clearer than they have hitherto been able to do, that young men and women who are qualifying themselves for engineering or other technical specialties are preparing for the country a possession of priceless value. There may be no general distinctions possible in the delicate matter of personal service, but unquestionably service in the line which each may desire will be worth more to the country than any other service that the same persons could render; and no more than this is necessary to make out a clear case. The natural instinct for values can here, as usual, be safely trusted. The best reason and judgment of most people instinctively turned against the idea of a Kreisler, for example, serving in the trenches. Not that Kreisler's distinction as a specialist entitled him as such to exemption as a privilege, but because it was felt, and rightly, that the Government might have made better use of him elsewhere. Similarly, it is only a distorted patriotism which insists that young men now training in technical lines should enlist for non-technical duty. We have too long followed this rough and indiscriminate method with college and university students, with the result of entailing a deplorable loss upon the efficiency of the nation.

It is both gratifying and reassuring to know, therefore, that the Bureau of Education is aware of the danger. The report just issued urges the maintenance of all the processes of higher education at their utmost efficiency, and particularly the development of an adequate supply of teachers. Institutions of learning are asked to make every effort to bring their opportunities within the reach of all suitably prepared men and women of college age. Where financial aid is needed, the Bureau recommends that it be extended; and it urges young people who possess the requisite qualifications to come forward "in increasing numbers to the task of preparing for the highest service of which they are capable." All this is as it should be. It is gratifying, too, to see that the Bureau is looking ahead to the period of reconstruction. The best minds in Europe have long been at work on that problem, but we, unfortunately, have been so preoccupied with the present, and our hands and hearts have been so full of the business of satisfying immediate and pressing needs, that we have only just begun to think of the things that are to come. What is certain is that, for a long time after the war, there will be urgent need for all the trained ability that is left in the world. The nation that has the most and the best-trained ability will come out best, whether the prevailing ideal of the reconstruction period be that of seeking or of service, of international competition or international coöperation.

The War Department also has had an eye on the effect of wholesale enlistment from the colleges. It proposes to organize a Students' Enlisted Corps, which shall offer to students an immediate military status and develop them as a military asset, "while at the same time preventing the unnecessary and wasteful depletion of the college through indiscriminate volunteering." The language is worth quoting as showing that Secretary Baker is well aware of the folly of grinding seed corn. The country is by no means so short of man-power as to require that students anywhere should suffer either distraction or temptation. An intelligent patriotism must see, with the Bureau of Education and Mr. Baker, how important it is that interruptions of every sort should be avoided; and it must develop a public opinion powerful enough to protect students against the foolish social pressure which has already driven so many of them out of the particular sphere of service which they are best fitted to perform. It is time that the patriotism which sees in "national service" only so many million men and so many million rifles and bayonets should give way to something more foresighted and sensible; and there is no place where such a reform can be more quickly and effectively worked than in the colleges themselves.

Least of all should the pursuit of general culture be neglected. The report of the Bureau of Education says less about this than sound patriotism could wish; still, it indicates the need, at least by implication, in instancing the demands which will inevitably attend the return of peace. The nation will then need, as never before, clear, objective, and abundant thought; and except through culture, the knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world, the needs cannot possibly be met. In the time to come cultured men will be indispensable; no array of skilled cataloguers of phenomena can take their place or do their work. It may be that the youth who to-day is diligently reading Plato, Homer, and Sophocles, quite out of the popular current and perhaps despised and rejected as a slacker, will in due time turn out to be the one who is best preparing himself to give the country distinguished service.

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The War and College Athletics

GOOD news for our colleges and universities is announced by Professor L. B. R. Briggs, of Harvard, in the current *Atlantic*. Speaking of intercollegiate athletics, he declares that, as a result of the war, "we—that is to say, our colleges—acting together, may do with them almost as we please." This is, indeed, highly gratifying. We confess that we had expected great social revolutions as a result of the war, but this is beyond our fondest anticipations. Remembering how long and how thoroughly intercollegiate athletics have dominated the colleges, it smacks of the unbelievable that our academic authorities, by accident of the trifling hostilities across the ocean, have again "almost" come into their own. Nevertheless, we accept Professor Briggs's announcement without question. Roseate visions of college presidents more powerful than their football teams, and of professors again equal in authority and standing to a baseball coach, rise before us. What a change there will be on the campus when our professors return to their classrooms from their loyal war work!

There is even better news than that. Professor Briggs has discovered that the war has "come nearer justifying our methods in intercollegiate athletics than we had thought possible." So, just as athletic-team control of our colleges is about to be unhorsed, we find, paradoxically, the methods of that control more nearly justified than ever. Paradox or none, Professor Briggs seems much pleased at the changes. Teams, he declares, are no longer pampered; indeed, a team, poor thing, "is lucky if it gets the necessities of life"; "our [athletic] patient is so reduced that he needs building up." This is the opportunity of the college authorities to fatten him into the obedience he ought to show; perhaps by the proper diet he may yet learn to eat out of a professor's hand. Professor Briggs is even hopeful about the possibility of associating "athletics with honor in the best sense of the word, with honor and not notoriety." He moreover believes in the possibility of permanently abolishing the training-table, limiting the extravagance which has marked the outfitting and maintenance of teams, subordinating the coach, and agreeing to have only one coach for each of the major sports. He is not willing to abolish the paid coach, because "few suitable amateurs have both the time and the means," and he is one of the "purple dreamers" who believe that "a director of athletics belongs in the faculty."

All of which, accompanied as it is by a protest against the "earnest men" who have rigidly and uncompromisingly fought the shams and evils of intercollegiate sports, but have, he thinks, failed to see their meaning, may be the stuff that dreams are made of. It gives slight hope, however, of the permanent and radical reforms which the war has made possible. No such blowing hot and cold, no such temporizing or soft speaking, will rouse our colleges, war-distracted as they are, to the opportunity, not "almost" to control athletics, but to dominate them altogether. The war has shown that Harvard and Yale can exist without their big games and yet have the process of education continue. The militarization of our colleges has also illustrated one way of getting all the students into physical training, albeit of the poorest kind, according to our leading teachers of physical culture. But the tendency is to drift, to think only of winning the war, to look at our colossal stadia and "bowls" and recall the enormous capital wasted therein, and then to defer action and clear thinking until the war is over.

This may easily prove disastrous to the lesser reforms which Professor Briggs suggests. What the situation calls for is such measures as the extreme restriction of intercollegiate contests to not more than two or three for any one college, the further limitation of the years during which a player may represent his college or university, strict agreements regarding the restriction of expense, the abolition of all hired coaches, and a resolute purpose to exalt intracollegiate as opposed to intercollegiate athletics. The most important reforms needed are, of course, in the attitude of the faculties and governing boards. While President Eliot was the head of Harvard no effort was made to check the evils of the "Gold Coast" dormitories, *i. e.*, the development of luxurious quarters for the rich with the resultant caste feeling; it was a case of demand and supply and beyond reach; but when President Lowell came in, a plan to check the evil and the money to carry out the reforms were at once forthcoming. If our colleges resolutely set their faces against the evils of publicity—for which Professor Briggs says "a pretty good case may be argued"!—and determine if necessary to charge to profit and loss the huge sums invested in "bleachers," and to draw the whole body of students into athletic contests instead of relegating them to a few lads of especial prowess, the battle will be won; the teachers and not the teams will be supreme. We have had some delightful intercollegiate contests this year, like the boat race at Princeton, without "cheering throngs" or special trains or entrance fees. Why should they not continue and become the rule? The answer involves the question whether or not our college authorities are ready to take their courage in their hands and do the obvious thing.

The Minor Patriotisms

IN times like ours, when patriotism is in the air, when everybody who has a talent, a specialty, or a resource is besought to use it for the nation or the world, and when statistics of what has been done or is to be done mount to staggering heights, there is one class that rarely receives its due. It is the great class of the undistinguished. For the captains of industry with their armies of workmen; for the rich who can offer their services without pay, and whose subscriptions to loans and "causes" know little limit save their own good will; and for public men whose official positions give them a voice in the shaping of great policies and lend weight to everything they say, there is always recognition, instant, abundant, well-deserved. But for the millions who wield no authority, who have accumulated neither wealth nor power, and whose words and acts carry no appreciable influence beyond the petty circle of the daily round, recognition, if it comes at all, comes oftenest not to the individual, but to the mass. The greater rewards of public recognition are only for the few; for the mass there can be, in the very nature of the case, opportunity only for the minor patriotisms of undistinguished service.

How great and varied has been the outpouring of this humble service during the past months of war, no formal history can ever record. It is the response of the millions that is winning the war, if it is to be won. The painstak-

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ing economies of the housewife, bent upon doing her part for the nation's welfare, have piled up the imposing volume of frugality and saving without which the wisest plans of a Food Administration would have met defeat. The steady, persistent toil of the mechanic, known perhaps to his employer by number rather than by name, is the force that has built ships, fashioned munitions, broken freight blockades, and driven production of every sort to full capacity. The supply of wheat would have failed if small farmers as well as large ones had not responded to appeals to raise a little more and waste a little less; and there would have been no meat if millions of unknown men and women, as well as the big hotels and restaurants, had not voluntarily reduced their daily portions. All over the land men, women, and children have been schooling themselves in little economies, no doubt at times with a certain self-consciousness and parade, but nevertheless with the genuine feeling that what was being saved was for the nation's good. There will be no decorations or memorials for those who have given to the nation this service, yet the war would have spelled defeat had they hesitated or refused.

Nor can we measure or reward the patriotism of the millions who, in small and often painful ways, have saved for the nation's benefit. The fifty-dollar Liberty bond, paid for in instalments by months of thoughtful economy; the Thrift Stamp or War Saving Stamp, fruit of many a little self-denial; the unnumbered contributions of a dollar or less to the Red Cross or other organizations, all represent in final analysis a volume of sacrifice no single element of which is other than inappreciable, but whose aggregate surpasses anything which the nation could have supposed was possible. In ways not material, too, the readiness of the mass to serve has shown itself. Not many of the countless thousands who have read with care the best that has been written about the war, or followed day by day on the map the course of military operations, or weighed in their minds the various proposals for peace, have personal influence beyond some small community or social group; but together they have built up a body of intelligent public opinion upon which the fortunes of the war, for good or ill, will ultimately rest.

It is one of the effects of a great war that it evokes such lesser sacrifices as these on a vast scale. It does not originate them, but it makes them pervasive. It gives to the humblest person what in ordinary times he usually lacks—the feeling of active participation in a great enterprise. The crowd which cheers the passing company of men who have responded to the draft holds many a father or mother or sister who realizes for the first time what duty to the state may mean, and who knows full well that while one son or brother more or less does not matter, the aggregate of sons and brothers may win the war. The speakers who have gone about the country blaming the American people for their lack of interest in the war, and denouncing their want of understanding of what it was all about, have rendered a very mistaken service. It were better to recognize the unpretentious loyalty of the many who individually can do but little, to whom even the smallest extra outlay means a very real sacrifice, yet who day by day are giving of their labor and their savings and parting with those who are dear to them because of their deep belief that injustice may be thus redressed and right prevail. It is the minor patriotisms that make the nation strong in war as well as in peace.

Literary Futures

WE have already in sight enough social changes of various kinds to make us wonder about literature in the first fifty years after the war. If, for example, the country goes over to Socialism, shall we still be moved by the life history of characters who belong to a social régime which has come to be despised? Will the characters of drama or fiction whose struggles hinge upon ideals and social methods that have faded, any longer have power over readers who move in realms all fresh and changed? Certainly patient Griselda, once admired as a model of obedience, has gone without admiration for a century already; all she can evoke, if luckily she escapes scorn, is a sort of wonder at such a prodigy of tameness. Many books about saints or agnostics are now bought only for their binding or their date, to be looked at, not to be read; and more than one Victorian author's ladies and gentlemen we are already sending to the attic with lambrequins and whatnots. It is an interesting conjecture what will become of Mr. H. G. Wells, who mainly occupies himself with bringing water from a little way upstream when the mass of men have already camped at the source.

No! some prophets will answer quickly. Readers will call for books of their own time, for authors with the time's point of view. Yet when the French Revolution had shed the last royal blood, Racine continued to be played; and Racine, with his kings and conventions and bland arrangements, has survived Rousseau's nature and sentimentality, the cherry waistcoats, the drinking out of skulls, and the long hair of the romanticists, and Antoine's realists. The tragedies of democratic Athens were made up of royal woes. Even Shakespeare, for all his abundance and riot, continued to be read in the eighteenth century of absolutisms, norms, and circumscriptions. The prophecy jumps too fast. It over-stresses the appeal of what is near at hand, assumes too constant an interest in the life at our fingers' ends; as if maids read nothing but the love affairs of servants, and doctors only surgical romance.

No, the test for our fathers' books, as for our own, will rather be some sort of forced return to fundamentals. Havoc is played with the appeal of a book only when the story turns upon some social ideal or convention that has since fallen into disrepute. Calderon hangs his drama on a fantastic honor that requires a man to kill his innocent wife for the family name, and all his genius scarcely prevents us from thinking his hero a fool. Even Othello rocks on his pedestal whenever he outhusbands husbands. We can go on forever reading of kings. A tale with a king might be an inspiration even to a Bolshevik. When tyrants have been beheaded, people will forget the tyranny and go on weeping from pity, from gentleness, or in irony. Yet no one can say how far the literature now called immortal is such only in the mouths of scholars. There is no telling how much the next age will consider the authority of schools at all, and how much the wider authority of life. Will the sweeping question be in the literature nearest to hand? Which of our gospels will be cast out as barren and empty? Will the coming age be a reading age? If so, its weariness and disillusionment may throw it back upon the writings which have stood the test of time, even while the experiences and aspirations heaped up by the vivid life of a new world are demanding, too, a voice.

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The Crisis in the Schools

By JOSEPH SWAIN

APART from the prosecution of the war itself, there is no more urgent problem before the American people than that created by the threatened collapse of the teaching profession. Collapse is an extreme word; but so is the emergency it describes. The drafting into other work of large numbers of the most capable teachers, the continual opening of new doors of opportunity to thousands of others, the utterly inadequate financial provision for the majority of the remainder—these are no longer matters for debate. They are facts, facts ominous with disaster for the nation. If the American people cannot be made to see the situation and to supply an early and drastic remedy, we shall run the risk, even though we win the war, of losing all that makes the war worth winning. Our schools are the spring and origin of our democracy. Of what avail will it be to spend our blood in defending the forms of democratic society, if the life that is to fill and energize them is lost? And if our schools suffer, it will be lost. It is futile to declare that this is a matter for the future. If the war has taught us anything, it ought to have taught us that the future becomes the present with fatal rapidity, and that failure to provide for that future in advance is criminal. Foresight, then, is what is wanted, and again foresight, and yet again foresight. The American people now have a supreme opportunity to exercise foresight in the matter of their schools. Will they exercise it? Or will they kill the goose that lays the golden eggs?

Fortunately there are a few departments of education which even the most ordinary man can realize are not only indispensable to the life of the nation, but are as integral parts of the prosecution of the war as the building of ships or the training of armies. A blind man can see that if the teaching of chemistry or engineering or medicine in this country were to suffer, the military arm of the nation would soon be crippled. Fearful lest the supply of skilled workers should fall off, industrial leaders are realizing more fully every day how dependent they are on the flow of trained men from the hands of the schoolmasters. Within a month, for example, a manager of one of the largest munitions plants in the country came to the head of the department of chemistry in one of our colleges with the statement that he was in need of a chemist particularly fitted for work of a character which he specified.

"You have the very man we want," said he, naming an assistant professor of chemistry in the college in question. "You must let us have him."

"But I can't," replied the professor. "Our department cannot get on without him. He cannot be replaced."

"How much is he receiving here?" inquired the manager.

The head of the department mentioned the salary.

"We will double that," declared the manager without an instant's hesitation, "if he will go to work for us to-morrow morning."

"We cannot meet that offer," said the professor, "but if you take him, don't expect us to keep on sending you the groups of trained chemists that that man has helped to turn out in the past."

The manager hesitated. The thought seemed to sober him. "You're right," he exclaimed. "I see it. Keep your man. He is more indispensable to us here than he would be in our plant." And he went away to seek some other solution of his problem.

That incident presents in miniature the relation of technical education to the war. Every day the war becomes more of a war of expert knowledge. The man behind the desk is as essential as the man behind the gun. Indeed, he is the man behind the gun. All this is so plain in the case of subjects like chemistry, engineering, and medicine that an apology is almost necessary for dwelling on it. But it does not appear to be so plain in the case of subjects just as really, albeit a bit more indirectly, connected with the war. And when it comes to education generally, to the majority of the public it does not appear to be plain at all.

The argument in many minds seems to run something like this: "Our business at present is to win the war. By all means let us keep the technical schools that have a bearing on that business running full blast. As for the rest of the school system, it will be time enough to attend to that when the war is over." Now, if we knew that the war would be over in a year; or if the country were financially at its last gasp, with taxation passing the limits of the tolerable; if luxury were entirely eliminated and waste and extravagance things of the past; or if all the able-bodied men and women were at the front, in the factory, or on the farm, then there might be a gleam of reason in a proposition to close the schools until the war is over, or to let them pass into the hands of admittedly inferior persons. Even under such circumstances, the proposal would be a desperate one. Culture and education are by their nature continuous things. They are a kind of birth. We cannot disturb the process of physical birth in a nation without disaster. Neither can we interrupt its spiritual and intellectual life and expect to take it up unimpaired where it was dropped. It would be tragedy indeed if the present generation were to win the war only to have its fruits wasted by a generation incapable of understanding or using them.

Here we touch the centre of the misunderstanding concerning the war and general education. This is not merely a war of chemistry and engineering, a war of technical knowledge pitted against technical knowledge; it is a war of cultures and ideals, of ideas pitted against ideas. In this sense it is literally a war of schoolmasters; and only the hope of victory in this latter struggle makes the sacrifices of the other conflict seem worth while. But to achieve that victory the ideas and ideals for which we stand must be kept pure and free-flowing at their source. That deeper war behind the other is bound to go on long after the physical strife has ceased. Everywhere men make the capital mistake of supposing that the good or evil of this war is a thing that will be definitely settled on the day when victory is attained and the treaty of peace signed. There could not be a grosser error. The outcome of the war for humanity, the final good or bad of it, is going to depend on what the nations do as a result of it, on whether it gets the better of the brain of humanity by stunning it or whether the brain of humanity gets the better of the war by understanding it. But this, in the main, lies with the will and

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the intellect of the next generation, and the will and the intellect of the next generation are, in no small measure, in the keeping of the teachers of the present. It has become a truism that the Germany of to-day is the product of the German schoolmasters of yesterday. Just as certainly the America of to-morrow, perhaps the world of to-morrow, will be the product of the American teachers of to-day.

What, then, if the American teaching force of to-day comes to consist of an inferior selection from our present teachers, supplemented by high-school girls of no experience, no special training, of temporary tenure, and with only passing interest in this work? What if the prophecy of at least one publisher of textbooks be realized, that only "fool-proof" textbooks must be published in America for the present—for the reason, to use his own words, that "we are going to have to deal with just that type of teacher for the next ten or fifteen years"? Such a prediction from an unsentimental business man with an eye to profits should set us thinking. America must not delude itself into believing that it can put its children into the hands of teachers of the "fool-proof textbook" type, and yet expect those teachers to turn out a generation of statesmen capable of grappling with the problems of what promises to be the most critical period in the social and political history of mankind. To achieve that result, the teachers must be, on the contrary, not only not inferior, but markedly superior, the best that can be had, not merely in training and intellectual equipment, but in character, imagination, and social vision, men and women fitted by virtue of what they are to disseminate the spirit of democracy. We must put forever behind us the childish notion that reading, writing, arithmetic, and the rest are all there is to education. For the genuine purposes of life, these are the incidental products of teaching; its central products are those intangible and imponderable things, that total attitude towards life, which the child takes in, as unconsciously as it takes in the air, from the personality of the teacher as a whole. Woe to the future if that personality be of inferior grade!

Yet at the present hour, as has already been intimated, practically all forces are making in the direction of just such inferiority. There are inducements on every hand for the most successful teachers to leave the profession; there are few inducements for those with promise of success to enter it. With the many branches of military service open to the teacher making their patriotic appeal, with hundreds of industrial concerns bidding for the services of men and women with precisely the equipment which the teacher's training gives, and with salaries in most of the schools far below even that modest level of subsistence that the teacher has been granted in the past, the profession is bound to undergo, is already undergoing, rapid deterioration. If it be urged that the teacher at this crisis should be patriotic and remain at his post, bearing his part of the sacrifice of the time, the answer is that there is no group of workers in the country who would be less willing, if they could, to escape that sacrifice. They, if any one, are in a position to know the worth of the thing that is at stake. All they ask is that they shall not be called upon to carry an utterly unjust and crushing share of the burden. All they ask is that they shall be treated in the spirit of President Wilson's recent declaration to Congress, that the load the people must shoulder must be equitably placed. "If the burden is justly distributed," were his words, "and the sacrifice made a common sacrifice from which none escapes who can bear it at all, [the people of this country] will carry it cheerfully and with a sort of solemn pride." The teachers of the country subscribe unanimously to that creed, but they also ask to have it applied to their case. If it is not, it is possible to predict with accuracy what will happen to the teaching profession.

The teachers of the country will fall roughly into three classes. First, there will be what we may call the endowed class, small, and confined in the main to the higher branches of education. It will consist of a certain number of financially independent persons who will continue teaching because of the pleasure of the work or the intellectual and social prestige flowing from connection with a college or university. Second, there will be what we may call the part-time class. This will consist of an immense number who will give only a share of their time and energy to teaching; who will teach, but who will not expect their teaching salary to support them. Few outside the profession have any idea how largely the teachers of the country already belong to this class, from the many who earn a few dollars "on the side" or devote what ought to be their period of intellectual recreation, the summer vacation, to other work, to the few (again mostly in the higher branches of education) who frankly, sometimes cynically, make their teaching incidental and double or treble their salaries by outside work. No one can calculate the degree to which the efficiency of education in this country is already impaired through the necessity under which thousands of teachers suffer of doing two things at once. What sort of work would the nation expect of its executives and legislators, of its sailors and soldiers, or of its business men, if after their regular day's labor they were compelled to give their attention to some side line of work to eke out a living income? Yet that is exactly what the nation seems to expect of a multitude of its teachers.

For a third class of teacher there is no satisfactory name. Were the term not likely to be misunderstood, it might be called the sweated class. Perhaps the exploited class would be less open to objection. It will consist in part of teachers who, through age, or poor health, or family responsibilities, or other circumstances over which they have little or no control, will be able neither to escape from the profession nor to add materially "on the side" to their teaching income, and who will be compelled to take what is offered and lower their standard of living accordingly. Such teachers will deserve nothing but sympathy. They will be slaves in outward condition, but not in spirit. Surely, it is to be hoped that the time may never come when the teacher will not be willing to live simply: a certain austerity of life befits his position of spiritual leadership as it does that of the minister. But simplicity is one thing and a poverty that stunts the soul is another.

An endowed class, a part-time class, a sweated or exploited class: these are the divisions into which the American teaching profession will split, if some radical remedy is not adopted. What is the remedy? The remedy is not to raise teachers' salaries sporadically, 25 per cent. in this enlightened city, 5 per cent. in that benighted one, $500 a year in some growing industrial section where teachers have grown scarce, $50 a year in some out-of-the-way town where supply and demand in teachers has not been perceptibly affected. The critical situation of our schools will never be genuinely remedied so long as teachers' services are regarded as a commodity to be purchased at the cheapest

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obtainable rate in the open market. That is the present attitude towards the teacher. Unless that attitude ends, our democracy will end. The teacher must come to be taken for what he is, a public servant, performing a task of unsurpassed importance to the nation, and on that account as fully entitled to adequate compensation as the soldier, the legislator, or the judge. From the kindergarten to the university, the teaching profession in America must be lifted to a level that will command for it the full respect of the community and attract into its ranks men and women of the first order.

All this is simply a way of saying that education is a national matter. The statement is not at all meant to imply that it is exclusively a national matter. But the child is of concern to a wider region than the place in which he is born; and the wealth of a community is no measure of the promise of its human material. Boys and girls are the nation's highest assets. The nation must do its share towards bearing the burden of their training. The nation, the State, and the locality, each has its function. Just now, however, it is the nation that must seize the initiative and lead the way. If the nation cannot be made to see its duty, then the teachers, by concerted action and collective bargaining, must compel the nation to wake up.

The Awful German Language

By FREDERICK TUPPER

IN the delicious discourse which has prompted my title Mark Twain introduces an American who would rather decline two drinks than one German adjective. Apparently the American of the near future will have little opportunity of exercising either mournful privilege, for the distilling of grain and the instilling of grammar are undergoing like declension. Indeed, it would seem that the dictionary is an even greater enemy to straight thinking than the distillery in providing the insane root that takes the reason prisoner; for an insidious venom hitherto unsuspected is now discovered among Teutonic stems and endings. From the poisonous breath of paradigms the infant soul suffers contagion, and by the spewing and spitting and sputtering of harsh gutturals youthful patriotism is brought to its last gasp. Propaganda lurks in pronouns personal and possessive, espionage in aspirates, pan-Germanism in strong conjugations; and the inverted sentence is a Hun in its unabashed topsy-turvydom. There is seemingly a danger that under the spell of *der, die, das,* young America may be seduced from its allegiance to its own grammarless tongue and become dehumanized by the soullessness of grammatical gender. This danger has been laid bare to its bones by Argus-eyed educators, quick to perceive that the German word, like German beer, once taken into the mouth, steals away the brains, and that any smack of either is a menace to all that is native. German and alcohol both have their uses in the world, no doubt, but to many good Americans neither seems safe unless denatured. The result of that denaturing process which we call translation may be offensive to the taste; but there are high-pitched voices which argue that the literature of a people loses its sting in losing its native quality.

That literature often loses in translation its essence—the very things that make it literature, all the treasures of the original, propriety of use, richness of suggestion, sweetness of sound—nobody can deny. The Germans have made Shakespeare their own—transplanted him, transmuted him, and, it may be added, Teutonized him pretty thoroughly in the process. "No Englander can understand the Shakespeare grammatic like we," a member of the English seminar at Berlin once said to me with characteristic arrogance. But when I hear of a "National Shakespeare," put forth in Germany and in German in this year of disgrace, I am troubled by a doubt, which is provoked by many painful memories of the Deutsches Theater: the effacement of the grotesque comedy of the devil-porter by Schiller's insipid dawn-song; and, in the same play of "Macbeth," the conversion of blasted heath and witches into a Harz Mountains *Hexentanz;* the "odjus spectacle" of the inimitable brace of knights of Illyria masquerading as Herr Tobias von Ruelph and Herr Andreas von Bleichenwangen of "Was Ihr wollt"; the humdrum domestication of Puck and his fairy fellows, despite of Mendelssohn; the unforgivable intrusion of farcical horse-play into the trial scene of the "Merchant" by the strutting entry of Portia and her maid; and the Berlinizing of Brakenbury's speech to the Queens at the gates of the Tower, to which, by Richard's order, "Eintritt ist strengstens verboten." This German nationalizing of Shakespeare is again and oft a theme for tears or laughter; and yet, not forgetting Bayard Taylor, I know of no Englishing of a German classic that vies with Schlegel and Tieck's version of the great Elizabethan.

There is a wholesome moral in the mock praise lavished in "The Tramp Abroad" on the literal rendering of Heine's "Lorelei" by one Garnham, Bachelor of Arts: "No translation could be closer. He has got in all the facts, and in regular order, too. There is not a statistic wanting. It is as succinct as an invoice." But the implied criticism of the sacrifice of beauty and power cannot be made of the reproduction of technical writings, whose sole purpose is information. "Why study German for its scientific value," argues one ardent American, "when every German contribution to science is promptly translated and is made available to foreigners in a version far clearer than the original?" The answer due that misleading assertion is Touchstone's Reproof Valiant, or, better still, one of that mettlesome gentleman's yet higher degrees of counterstatement. The scientist, innocent of German and relying for his advance in knowledge upon opportune renderings of relevant dissertations, will, like George Eliot's Mr. Casaubon, grope helplessly with a pocket-compass in woods through which the scholarship of Germans has made carriage roads. The scientific study of our own language has leaned so heavily upon their toilsome researches that the English philologist is speedily lost amid the mazes of linguistic history and laws without their frequent counsel, given in untranslatable technical jargon—an ugly, clumsy thing, doubtless, but often most useful. If the study of German is to be strangled in its infancy, whence will come the translators of the future, preserving for us German thought free from the venom of the German word which we so greatly fear? The few interpreters who survive the effective suppression of their

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younger time will, like workers amid poisonous gases and acids in the unwholesome depths of mines, be so speedily tainted by their noxious environment and occupation that they will, doubtless, become beautifully less. And thus a Nirvana of perfect self-sufficiency, disdaining all that an enemy has to teach, will be easily attained.

Loud has been the outcry and drastic has been the action against German in American schools. Not without warrant is the alarm occasioned by the vogue of German in those parochial institutions of the Middle West where English is under the ban, and by the systematic effort of the German-American Alliance to promote the compulsory teaching of German in the public schools of many States and cities. Right reason is clearly speaking in the tones of Mr. Elihu Root, when he publicly declares that

> to be a strong united nation, we must be a one-languaged people, that every effort should be made to promote the universal use of English, and that nothing ought to be done which will make it easier for anybody to read and speak German instead of reading and speaking English.

That, however, is not the same as saying that it must be made impossible for any young person in the schools of America to study one of the chief languages of earth. There may be somewhere a sense of humor so sensitive as to find provocation in the fear of zealous school boards that the Americanism of boys and girls in Vermont or Virginia will be lulled to sleep in the lap of old-world legends, fables, and idyls, and that young patriotism will stumble on the indirect crooked ways of the Direct Method. But, then, the solemn chorus cries that the pitfall and the gin are set for the poor birds amid the net and lime of German *Realien,* pleasing pictures of every-day life in the Fatherland. A sense of perspective dictates a twofold answer: that this was the life of yesterday, a sunny, kindly yesterday though somewhat too well ordered, not distant in time from to-day's bottomless horror, but so remote in spirit that the fall of Lucifer himself teaches no more pitiful lesson than the very present image of the Teutonic leviathan floating over many a rood of Central Europe; and that, if certain books offend, it is easy to pluck them out of the school curriculum, as we have plucked out of our history courses partisan textbooks, grossly unfair to England or to Civil War opponents, or out of our preparatory reading in English many lucubrations of Dryasdust. Everywhere, literary knowledge declares, is healthy food in plenty for all kinds of appetites. It is an ingenious plea of the devil's advocate that we should not visit all the sins of the sons of darkness upon their far-away Germanic forefathers—many of them children of light. But even though we are driven to recognize certain cultural gains in the study of German literature, we are bidden not to forget, like divers dull and unpractical academic folk, that the ultimate test of any present-day study is its usefulness, its value in dollars and cents. Moreover, sundry good haters assure us that the economic and commercial value of German to the people of the western hemisphere is gone forever, and that public money raised by taxation should, therefore, not be used to facilitate and promote the study of German. It behooves us to emphasize this argument wherever unthinking prejudice is rife and responsive, particularly as it has received absolutely no support from those in high place, who seem somehow strangely reluctant to say to the German people: "Though we are fighting to deliver you, too, from imperial bondage, yet, when the deliverance is complete, we shall leave you as outcasts in the wilderness for years to come." There are, indeed, certain hard hitters, among them many municipal and even metropolitan school boards, who, feeling the futility of argument, eschew all reasoning and say bluntly: "America is at war with Germany. Let us give no countenance to the language of the enemy."

This indictment of a hostile speech encounters only pathetic lack of support from the March letter of our Commissioner of Education, which indeed runs counter in its every clause to the clamor of the zealots. Mr. Claxton argues with every semblance of sweet reasonableness that the United States is now at war with the Imperial Government of Germany and not with the German language or literature, that after the war commercial and political relations will be reëstablished, and that for practical industrial purposes we shall need a knowledge of the German language more than in the past. The Commissioner is keenly sensitive to the cultural worth of the German language and literature and to the increasing value of the scientific and technical writings of the German people. He urges us to remember that the kinship between the English and German languages is the same as it was before the war, and that the value of a knowledge of the history and philology of the German language for an understanding of English remains the same. Finally, he insists that we cannot regard as evil everything about a people because they are under the control of an autocratic, militaristic Government, with whose purposes and aims we happen to be in conflict. Mr. Claxton's plea, despite its resonant persuasiveness, may be inaudible to those strong-lunged trumpeters who seek to drown with lusty blasts the faintest breath of Teutonic accent and inflection, but its principal contention is echoing from the lips of school boards and schoolmasters here and there: "We are at war with the German Government, not with the German language." Significant is the coincidence between the arguments of the American Commissioner and the consensus of opinion of English teachers, presumably as patriotic as our own. To them German seems, no less than ever, historically, culturally, scientifically important. Educated men must face the facts of history, be they good or evil, nor close their eyes to the exploits of a mighty nation, a tremendous world-force, be its present deeds right or wrong. "Kultur" is revolting to all the decent instincts of Englishmen, who have suffered so much from its horrors and are hence fighting it to the utmost, but it is to be deemed, so they tell us, only the passing Prussian phase in the sum and substance of German culture. "It will avail us nothing," so say these sterling English folk, who have the enviable quality of keeping their wits under the stress of honest indignation, "to belittle Germany's science, ignore her energy, despise her discipline." Manchester, synonym of commercial achievement and of interest in art and letters, adds through one of its teachers, that "the form of vengeance which cuts off your nose to spite your face is not satisfying." "Shall Germans fight equipped with our language, learning, and science as well as their own, while we rely only on ours? The elimination of German will not hurt Germany, but us." May we not store these recent gleanings from the field of British school opinion with our own harvest of sober second thoughts?

Shall the German language inspire in us Americans the same contempt as it did in the greatest German Emperor, who affected to use it only when speaking to the horses of his stable, and in the greatest Prussian King, who learned

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only enough of it to berate in bad grammar and worse pronunciation his servants and his soldiers? Shall our students of the humanities sweepingly damn the scholarly writings of Germany in the spirit of sturdy old Porson's gibbering epigram?

> The Germans in Greek
> Are sadly to seek
> (Not five in five score,
> But ninety-five more),
> Save only Hermann—
> And Hermann's a German.

Shall our scientists disdain all technical currency of German coinage, and shall our students of English origins ignore the sister-speech in their "search for the ancient mother"? Shall our teachers of infancy reverse the test of "shibboleth" with children below the grades and show themselves as ruthless to all who can clearly enunciate "Kindergarten" as the intolerant Gileadites to the sons of Ephraim? If we inconsiderately make this great refusal, there are large grounds for fear that we shall prove sadly unprepared for stern meetings on fields hardly less costly than those of battle with our present enemy, who invades other languages as deliberately as he plunders other lands. Having in himself no native gleam of the sportsman's spirit, this "outsider" phlegmatically borrows from sportsmanlike England her varied and vivid terms of turf and lawn and playground. Possessing in his own inadequately tailored tongue little of the wherewithal "to court an amorous looking-glass," he takes the very names of his clothes from Piccadilly and Oxford Street. A tardy arrival on the water, the "inevitable German" exercises "the freedom of the seas" by taking as heavy a toll of the lingo of English sailors and traders as just now of their lives. Misreading many times the English sentiment, he learns in childhood not to misread the English sentence. Perish the thought that we, even under the proper tutelage that we so often lack, can acquire no such mastery of an alien tongue! "A German officer who spoke excellent English" has been recently the ubiquitous villain of every tragic crisis on both land and sea—not the more honest or decent a villain perhaps, but certainly in every way more efficient by right of his linguistic talent. Shall we, restrained by an ungrounded fear, which disturbs no Englishman, that a schoolboy knowledge of the German language will Germanize us quite, tamely yield to these formidable foes of ours the initiative that the mastery of a rival's language affords in both peace and war?

[In connection with the foregoing article, the following official report from Inspector-General Potel, of the French Government, concerning instruction in German in the French schools, is of interest. The report, which was received by the Department of State through diplomatic channels, is here reprinted from Vol. I, No. 1, of *School Life*, an official publication of the United States Bureau of Education.—EDITOR OF THE NATION.]

I.

In the beginning of the war a feeling of hostility against instruction in German manifested itself in France. Discussions were opened in the newspapers, and the attendance at the German classes of the first cycle became poor. The University, which perceived the danger, did not fail to make it known. In the month of September, 1916, an interministerial commission met at the Ministry of War to study the modifications to be made in the examinations for admission to the important military schools as regards foreign languages. In the course of one of its meetings the said commission was incidentally informed by the inspectors-general of secondary education, who were present, of the danger which German instruction in France ran. The interministerial commission made a series of propositions to which the Ministry of War was good enough to give its approval. In a letter which it addressed on November 26 to the minister of public instruction, it communicated to him the modifications made in the competitive examinations for admission to the Polytechnical School and the School of Saint-Cyr. The essential provision of the Ministerial order was as follows:

(1.) From the first the commission has allowed candidates to choose as an obligatory language either German, English, or Russian. The minister added: "The University must counteract, in so far as it lies within its power, the tendency to which the inspectors-general, members of the commission, have called attention, which manifests itself among the pupils to abandon the study of German." On his side, the minister of public instruction invited the heads of institutions to exert their influence with the families to have their children inscribed for the German course.

Public opinion, once enlightened, became normal again. In the course of my visits of inspection in the years 1916 and 1917 I noticed that the attendance at the German classes of the sixth and fifth had markedly increased; the number of pupils studying German varies from one-quarter to a third of the total number of scholars. It is in the public schools that the abandonment of German is most marked, doubtless because the pupils of these establishments are recruited from the small town or rural districts where the higher needs of the country are not perceived with the same clearness as in the important intellectual centres.

In the universities the German language and German literature are still studied. As regards the commercial schools, M. Jouanny, member, secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of Paris, made me the following statement: "We have maintained the instruction of German in our five schools."

II.

One may therefore reply with all assurance that the courses and classes of German in the schools of France will still be attended. But the studies, from the fact of the war, have undergone profound changes which the programmes did not need to prescribe, because they occurred, so to speak, spontaneously. Already the Ministerial instructions of 1902 specified that "apart from the language itself, the foreign country and the people who live in it should furnish more particularly material for instruction."

To-day less than ever should there be ignorance of Germany. One must first study her on the spot, follow her economic evolution and the development of her social institutions, the movement of her associations, the instruction given in her universities. One must watch over all the manifestations of her activity, and, in order to be exact, our information must be based on a knowledge of the German language. If we are ignorant of German, we do not know Germany, or, again, what is more serious still, we shall only know and see of her what she wishes to show us. She will appear generous, humanitarian, and pacifist, and will conceal, under the veneer of an innocent good nature, her moral hideousness, which, when she reveals herself, revolts the human conscience.

When peace is signed the Germans must be watched at home, but they must also be watched here with us. What makes the strength of Germany is above all the manner in which she has known how to establish herself in all countries. Have France, England, and America been as attentive to the expansion of Germany and the intrigues of her agents? It has required the Teutonic misdeeds in America, the propaganda in Ireland, Italy, Russia, and France even to open our eyes. Do not let us hope to raise a wall which will protect from attempts at invasion on the part of Germany. She will have abroad her associations, churches, lodges, choral societies, patronal or workingmen's syndicates, who will all prepare for the next war. It would be culpable not to speak the language of all these artisans of a powerful country like Germany, for one must understand what they say, read what they write, and endeavor to learn what they think.

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The Return of the Teacher

By STARK YOUNG

JUST when knowledge began to be divided into subjects would be hard to say. The science natural to intelligence would always grope towards arrangement, towards definition and classification; but the fashion of putting the stress as much on the boundary as on the content, on the jealously accented limitation, I imagine to be fairly recent. Certainly no one thought of the old Oxford or Harvard or Virginia as homes of registered specialists. But within the last fifty years this classification and specialization, partly derived from imported German standards, and largely modelled on the German, has dominated the colleges. *Superficial* has grown to be a terror to would-be rangers afield, and *authoritative* has become a bludgeon. Closely the cobbler is to stick to his last.

Side by side with this specialization came administration. Specialization applied itself diligently to affairs, to management. With schemes, plans, and propositions, with catalogues, requirements, and rulings, the American college urged education not to foster so much as to manage. The joys of authority, the fascinations of systems, are hard to resist, the ideal of the machine so perfect that it goes on running after one is dead. And the administration may always comfort the half-dead by filling his time and yet flattering him into thinking mere mechanism intellectual. But it provides committees oftener than groups of cultural interests.

And with the specialized departments and the administration, a kind of mobilized scholarship has erected itself, a word forced more and more to the uses of the unworthy; scholarship behind which, not even politics excepted, the greatest single mass of dulness in America has shielded itself now for a generation. There are worthy names, of course, but much of our so-called scholarship is only an excuse for sterility and mechanics. There follows an exaggeration of what is called production. The weaker lot of young scholars have had that way pointed out to them, and they go on like poor Tom of Bedlam, counting sheep long after he is strapped to his bed. And all this clutter is not allowed to rest in libraries, where it may be drawn upon on the rare occasions when it is needed, but must be published, printed in books whose only human excuse is the pleasure it gives the writer to make the dedication. It is as if every bone and skull, every aboriginal tooth, rib, seashell, or kitchen pot had to be mounted on pedestals in the museum.

But specialization, administration, and the so-called scholarship concern us here only as they tend to separate the teacher from his teaching. The stress laid on specialization has helped to limit the average teacher's range and scope of learning. With the smaller men it has too often served as an excuse for low-grade mechanics and mere union labor. It has helped separate the teacher from the student's complete interests. And it has done more: it separates members of faculties from one another. The psychologist distrusts the philosopher; the historian the economist. Men who should be brothers in divine humility and the desire for knowing are ranged as mere competitors, and lose their best opportunity for mutual stimulation and for that rich light that all the branches of study shed upon one another. They lose the best channels towards that ultimate philosophy that underlies and sustains all knowledge, and that makes of a college a vital unit.

Administrative devices—not to speak of the faculty entanglement in endless wires of executive superficiality—substitute the system for the individual agent. Teachers lack exercise in tact, response, insight, and invention. Sticklers for rules forfeit the student's respect, put him farther off. Grades, prerequisites, standardizations, and fiats widen the breach.

There is obviously less demand, then, for good breeding, sophistication, and sympathy in the teacher; for the Aristotelean virtues; for Aquinas's wholeness, harmony, and radiance; in short, for a man. The inevitable end, of course, is the falling off in the quality of the men going into professorships. This falling off is openly admitted nearly everywhere. And though financial elements count somewhat, it is due more to the decrease in the all-round functioning, the living, and in the quality demanded and exercised. Dinner at almost any faculty club at almost any large college would be a revelation to an octogenarian alumnus. He would meet some splendid and admirable men there; but he might also observe that a cad, a parvenu, and a fool in one trinity of faults may become a professor because of the discovery of some use of *mid* in Anglo-Saxon. He might confuse some of the most operant officials with accountants and sharp sellers of insurance.

But the college world can no more remain stationary than can life in general. The probing into the nature of things, the use of the naked eye, the testing, more and more at hand, has thrown on the college a burden heavier and more direct. There is a vista of new realities, new sincerities, new adventures; and fresh aspects of old ideals. There are many men at the gates. What, then, of this concept, or of that? they ask, and is the past to be useful, the change at hand? The administration cannot answer, it can only assign committees to the problem; and there are no rulings in these matters. The specialist can reply in some particulars, perhaps; but from the nature of the curiosity at the gate and from the multitude of men asking, it is clear that the case can never be quite specialized; it is too comprehensive, too charged with life and large imports. Only the scholar in a full capacity of teacher and man can hope to meet the cry, the questioning, the time. This sense of the teacher, then, is a necessary corollary of the problems of academic freedom, of free speech and thought; that the teacher is the man who shall take up for the college the solution of these living questions.

The cry is up again, then, as it has been in great epochs before this, for the relation of things to living; and men are asking the basic reasons under all things in practice or repute. And so the apartness of the colleges comes in for assault and accusation; they are asked to excuse their very existence. In return the colleges make rather pathetic efforts to fall into line, to connect themselves with the popular life. Courses are cut down, advertising is employed, vivacious and Chautauquan lecturers are circulated abroad, everything or anything is omitted or included for study, time is shortened, a pseudo-democratic level sought out, public favor wooed with juggling, cheapening, antics, apologies, descents. There is a panic in explanations. Meanwhile, the president, the dean, and the committees are road-making on an easy slope for learning to travel. They proclaim learning free to all, and argue the practical advantages of the trained mind. This is not only a vulgar descent into an

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unworthy arena, but is stuff and nonsense. The connection of the college with living, after all, whatever persuasive subjects may have been added, lies in the teachers. If the teachers had been of another quality, the relation of studies to life, to wide living, would speak for itself. The consummate answer to questions is when theory exemplifies itself in the act, the man. If a man's nature shows the flower and the fruit of his thought and subject; if his spirit is fragrant with his teachings, he will bear upon him the explanation and usage of his intellectual holdings. His own significance will express the significance of his subject, and his pupils will carry abroad in their own worth and substance the argument for his labor. Knowledge that will not transmit vitality is dead. And to those who have the greatest power of knowing, knowledge is always a secondary affair. Poor teaching can turn Bernard Shaw himself into a desiccated disputant from Alcuin's school, or Chekhov into a mummy, and Bertrand Russell into a scholiast. But in great teaching classics are such only by the perennial excellence in them, and the book of Euripides for many moods opens at to-morrow. Time is inconsequent, denied. Great teaching gives the sense of the continuity that runs through human life in all times and all things and that is at the bottom of the general demand for truth and vitality as the justification of all study. And by this sense of continuity the passion for oneness which underlies all the dreams of the soul is somewhat satisfied.

But many people in the world have a strange disconnection of their parts, they show no connection between themselves and their acquired knowledge. They are all in sections uncommunicating. They safeguard themselves from sinking into the depths of bewilderment by means of uncommunicating parts, exactly as do those hulks that may be shot through in their several spots without altering their course. And among teachers, as might be expected, are men amply possessed of their subjects, not narrowly trained, not mechanical, but somehow unable to turn their subjects and themselves into one. The thing is not a part of them, they are not the substance of it; they are not the evidence of its unseen elements.

But in everything, it seems to me, personal distinction lies in the reality given to a man's experience and knowledge by his personal self. Personal distinction is a unity of all the parts of a man through the quality of his spirit. Such a man carries nothing that his spirit cannot absorb, harmonize, and irradiate. As far as he goes, a long way or a short, he is at least something, and he is so far persuasive; he is seminative, infectious, corrective, and suggestive of the miracle of life. The country is full of the pupils of eminent professors who leave their master's side with enthusiasm, and then when a few years are gone, partly through the conditions they encounter but mainly through themselves, begin to dwindle, to wonder and sour, to repudiate or to arrogate as the case may be, and in other men to cause a marvelling over their sterile failures. They have been dominated, but not inspired, perhaps. Or they have never connected the subject supposed to be taught with the teacher or with themselves, in sum with living. In such events the subject was not taught, was not in reality the subject. And these things may also be said, in the face of the legions of the moribundi that hang on every college still: first, that there is no such thing as a subject except in so far as a living human mind detects and separates a group of material for its own living uses out of the universe; second, that for any one man, it is only through living mind, through insight and appropriation, that any material at all becomes really a part of his subject; and, third, that whatever cannot be taught or learned, be it directly or indirectly, between teacher and pupil has not become a part of the subject, not of their subject, at least.

All great men who have covered large fields and many subjects are the object of frequent wonder and perplexity. How could they have captured eminence in so many things? Leonardo da Vinci, the engineer, painter, author, sculptor, geologist, botanist, and mechanician, what not; Goethe, with his poetry, sciences, and art; Helmholtz, progressing from medicine to physiology, the ear, sound, physics, mathematics, and on the way, it was said, to die a philosopher if he had lived long enough; and many others. Men ask how it was all accomplished, so superhuman a work. But such men are thinking of physics or geology as walled-in subjects, caissons reaching from the upper air far below the waters of being. These poor souls cannot go on to love because they started with friendships; they must avoid religion to perfect psychology; and must renounce a sudden flash into mathematical law to attend the pulse beats of an armadillo. They fail to remember that by their exhaustive—though often infecund—methods, the arduousness of their labor increases, that it often comes from the inhibitions they set up for the mind, the determined penning and delimiting of those ranging faculties of ours that would run into many channels of insight and theory, of vision, and discovery in realms many, though not always to be classified as the subject in hand. The reason William James worked with distinction in so many directions was that he never cared whether it was psychology, philosophy, or Madame Varina in hand, but always for some vision pursued, some knowledge or truth that came under his eye. Students of Plato——Lutoslawski, Schleiermacher, Nettleship, Gomperz, and others—at the beginning of the discussion of a dialogue have a way of setting out all the things that the dialogue has been called, philosophy, or psychology, or folk fable, underground rivers, or politics and government. But Plato himself, as he said, followed his idea, his argument, whither it led him, and not in a course defined by a title. And mark this: all the dialogues are called by some living person in them, not by subject titles; they aim to follow life, not classification.

In these great men the accent is, after all, not so much on versatility as on completeness. The wonder about them lies in a single thing, not in many. They master a field by pouncing on the point of it. They stretch forth the wings of their eyes, as Dante would say. The astonishment at their prodigious amount of learning is a vulgar wonder, like that of rustics who would set above a prophet himself the schoolmaster that tells to a dot the bushels of corn in a certain barn. It is like wondering how a gentleman can learn the millions of right things to be done. All the pother about Shakespeare's knowledge, his medicine, law, theology, travel, is nonsense of this character; Shakespeare knew man as man lived in the legal realm, or in the medical, or in the theological, as he knew man in love, in anger, in solitude, that was all. In any subject the great man differs from the small by refusing to let others say what the subject is. But we, if we choose afterwards, may divide Goethe into many parts, in the sense that we divide life or the universe or severally react towards space or the firmament; he remains Goethe after all.

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Exactly as Abelard and Erasmus and the great masters were needed in the days of much experience and much ignorance, so in these days of much experience and much information, the great teacher is needed; he must help show the connections of all this multiplicity. He is the medium by which the things studied connect themselves with life, he is the clearer, farther seeing eye, and he knows with Petrarch the way through the eyes to the heart,

Already in the new proving of life that follows the war's progress, new theories of education have a better chance. And since all subjects of study and thought exist separately only in outward appearance and by agreement, they reduce themselves finally to the life unit, to the vital starting point, the teacher. The great teacher is one who sets free the particular genius of each spirit that works with him; and from his region of study and living can give to each worker the sense of possibility and freedom in his own region. More and more courses will come to be in the man rather than in a subject. More and more will come the realization that your course was not in social science, but in Hoxie; in Gildersleeve, not in Latin; not in philosophy, but in James.

The Labor Situation in Canada

By J. A. STEVENSON

ABOUT two months ago the Labor Department at Ottawa sent forth a very self-complacent statement declaring that Canada in labor matters was in a peculiarly happy situation in comparison with other countries. It was claimed that there was no more than the average degree of industrial unrest, and that only in a few eccentric cases did this unrest develop into strikes. Complete contentment was expressed as to the workings of the conciliatory machinery of the Department of Labor provided by the Lemieux act, and every evidence of a profound self-satisfaction was apparent. But this roseate picture does not exactly coincide with the facts. It is notorious that a series of recurring strikes and labor disputes have seriously affected and hampered Canadian industry during all the summer months. Whereas in July, 1917, only a total of sixty thousand hours was lost through strikes, in July, 1918, a total of one hundred and fifty thousand hours was lost. Scarcely a week passes but there is an acute outbreak in some quarter of the Dominion. One week it is the postmen, another the ship workers in British Columbia, and the latest trouble comes from the mine workers in Sydney, Nova Scotia.

The truth is that Canada has enjoyed the benefit of no considered and definite labor policy since the war began. There is a War Industries Board, which deals with the labor problems in regard to the munition factories. There is a Labor Committee, presided over by a member of the Government and including some economists, labor men, and employers, which is studying labor problems and slowly trying to work out a solution. But there can be no decent solution until the Government follows the example of President Wilson and appoints two bodies resembling those presided over by Mr. Taft and Mr. Felix Frankfurter. We have no corresponding agencies in Canada to mediate between labor and capital and effect the necessary adjustments in their relations. The methods hitherto employed by the Canadian Government in dealing with labor are wrong, in that they are based upon sheer pretence. There is a camouflage, loudly advertised in the press, of close cooperation between the trade unions, the Ministry of Labor, and other Government departments. Ministers are continually boasting about their policy of "consulting labor on all subjects," but in point of fact labor is only consulted after the Cabinet has decided upon its policy. Even if subsequent consultation does take place, there is an unhappy lack of coöperation in the execution of policies. The Cabinet contains at least six millionaires, and the last thing that they will agree to is to allow labor to assume power and responsibility and devise its own methods of meeting labor difficulties.

There are several unfortunate factors in the situation. The Minister of Labor in the Borden Cabinet, the Hon. T. W. Crothers, is an agreeable-tempered gentleman, who was appointed to the Cabinet in 1911 solely because he was the senior member from Western Ontario, which had to secure representation in the Executive, and it cannot be said that his interest in labor problems is of the most ardent sort. A recent tour which he made through the West was not an unqualified success. Addressing one labor meeting on the subject of patriotism, he besought his audience to consider "what would happen to their broad acres if the Germans came"; report said that "tumultuous laughter" hailed this cliché. Later on, discussing the relations of the state and its employees, he spoke to the Winnipeg postmen about "their troubles with their own servant girls," a remark which was greeted with wild derision. At Calgary he was met with formidable denunciations on the part of the trade unionists. It is a calamity that a man with a clear mind and modern outlook was not found at the time of the Cabinet reorganization to preside over the Ministry of Labor, and Sir Robert Borden, if he desires to escape complete discredit with the trade unions, must make a change in the near future. Senator Robertson, who sits in the Cabinet without portfolio and is an ex-trade unionist, would be a suitable choice.

The trade-union movement in Canada, however, suffers from certain internal defects. Its main strength lies in a few large cities, which are so widely separated that personal interchange of views is very difficult. It is faced with the difficulty of organization among the polyglot immigrants who make up the ranks of low-grade labor in Canada. It suffers, too, from the evil of divided counsels, and the existence of double ties both with the American and British labor movements. Industrially, most of the Canadian trade unions are part and parcel of the American Federation of Labor and have to fall into line with its decisions. Politically, many of the leaders have been trained from their early youth in the school of the British Labor party and take their political ideas from that source.

The result is that the movement often falls between two stools and fails to devise a coherent policy suited to Canadian conditions. It has long been rent by schisms and intestine quarrels, but since 1916 many of these have been healed, and the evolution of a National Labor party is now under way. The trade-union movement was never stronger in Canada than to-day. At the end of 1913 it embraced over 175,000 members. The number dropped in 1915 to about 143,000, then rose to 160,000 in 1916 and 204,000 in

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1917. The present membership is about 230,000. Under the trade-union ægis several able and active papers are published, and it looks forward to an alliance with the organized farmers and possibly the veterans of the war.

Many Canadian capitalists have been much attracted by what they regard as the safe and sane attitude of the American Federation of Labor, and have continually sought to enlist the services of Mr. Samuel Gompers and other kindred spirits as a soothing syrup for local agitation. When it is stated that the secretary of the Canadian Trade Union Congress, Mr. P. M. Draper, is and has been for years a civil servant, comfortably employed by the Dominion Government, the difficulties of the more ardent spirits of the movement in forcing a solution of vital issues will be easily understood. If Canada had a new Minister of Labor and her trade-union movement a new secretary, there would be some chance of remedying the present situation.

Much of the labor unrest is due to the consistent rise in prices which, though Canada is a large producer of the prime necessities of life, has affected her equally with other countries. Since the war began, the cost of living has increased at least 80 per cent., and while wages in some quarters have been steadily raised, the budget of the average workingman constitutes a more difficult problem than ever before. The postmen in most of the cities struck for the simple reason that they could not live on the wages paid by the Government. They had been promised a war bonus, which was voted by Parliament, but there was a needless delay in its distribution, and, after correspondence had proved futile, a strike was called. The greater part of the bonus has now been paid, the strike has ended, and a commission is now investigating the grievances of the lower ranks of the civil servants in respect of pay. But there is no likelihood of any cessation of the industrial unrest until the Government takes a national view of the economic problem. Within the last year freight rates in Canada have been raised 42.5 per cent. in the East and 25 per cent. in the West, and the increase means heavy additions to the cost of living and further demands for increase of wages. The Government has shunned its obvious duty of taking over the railways as Great Britain and the United States have done, and has weakly yielded to the claims of the Canadian Pacific Railway that its pre-war profits must be maintained. Canada, in other words, is moving economically in a vicious circle, and, until a solution is found for the existing muddle, there will be recurring industrial disturbances and personal vilification of Cabinet Ministers from Vancouver to Halifax.

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In the Driftway

SENATOR OLLIE JAMES'S death removes from the Senate a man of monster figure, whose outward appearance was a handicap to be overcome. But it was overcome as soon as one discovered the good humor and kindly nature which he possessed. It is idle to think of him as a statesman or a leader; he was neither. A plain, rather ordinary man of the people, he rose by industry and by his determination that people should take him seriously, and forget the lack of dignity in his first name. The climax of his career was undoubtedly his keynote speech at the St. Louis Convention which renominated Mr. Wilson. The speech was very long; the hall was crowded; the heat intense; but he held his audience. His great voice easily filled the vast space; his massive bulk never loomed greater, though threatening to dissolve in perspiration. The universal verdict was that it was a substantial and worthy effort. Mr. James is the second of Joseph P. Tumulty's intimate Senatorial friends to die recently, Senator Hughes, of New Jersey, being the other. Altogether Senatorial mortality has been heavy since we entered the war, no less than ten Senators having died in sixteen months.

* * * * *

Cole Blease's defeat in South Carolina is another triumph for Presidential interference in State primaries, as is Henry Ford's nomination on the Democratic ticket in Michigan. Blease, as the President intimated, would have been defeated without the President's opposition; it is an insult to the decency of any State to have a man of this kind out for so important an office. As for Mr. Ford, the chances are now that he will be defeated by Commander Newberry, and he ought to be. Anything else would be a severe blow to the Senate's prestige. Why the President should believe that a man so lacking in education and sound knowledge of anything outside of the automobile industry, so destitute of real personality or any considered political opinions, could be of service in Washington staggers the imagination. Mr. Ford's attitude of utter indifference, of refusal to express an opinion, is characteristic of his bearing during the Presidential primary of 1916. He is an able mechanic raised to dazzling affluence by a lucky idea of wholesale production of an excellent automobile engine. There are tens of thousands of foremen of factories, not so lucky, but equally fit to sit in the Senate.

* * * * *

Coming upon a Ruthenian picnic in the New Jersey woods last week, I heard an impromptu chorus of fifty singing their native folksongs, which are as impressive and delightful as any in the world. In Brooklyn, too, I lately heard a Scandinavian band playing the war marches of Gustavus Adolphus's Finns, which grew up out of the people after the manner of folksongs, with no known composer, during the Thirty Years' War. They have all the quality that can be put into martial music by souls who believe they have something to fight for. Beside them, the "Marseillaise" has the accent of sophistication. I wonder whether this time of peculiar tenderness towards small nations will modify the Murdstonian spirit of our Americanization programme towards their cultural specialties. England has always looked on the latter with resolute disfavor. Even now, Mr. Lloyd George's speech at the opening of an Eisteddfod the other day will not wholly make up for the persistent re-

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pression and discouragement of Welsh specialties, nor will any kind of Home Rule measure make up to Irish pride for the reluctance to set up chairs of Celtic literature in all the great English universities. America has not taken its rightful toll of the foreigner. The Chinese theatre has gone, the Neapolitan marionettes have gone, and the foreign drama and opera remain encysted on the Bowery and the East Side. The West does better, but more by luck than management. Nowhere, however, does the cultural contribution of the foreigner appear in the official formulas of Americanization, as it should if only as a possible counter-weight to the "Follies" and the "Frolics."

* * * * *

There leaves the *Nation* this week, to remain with the *Evening Post*, James Hamilton, who lacks only one month of having spent fifty years in charge of the *Nation's* subscription list. Three years after its founding, Mr. Hamilton came to this journal, and during this long time no one has served its interests more faithfully or devotedly than he. Persistently refusing to take the holidays urged upon him or even to rest on Sundays, he has had the friendship and regard of all the *Nation's* editors. By fate's decree Mr. Hamilton has a darker skin than most Americans; no one can have served his race more truly during these years than he by his absolute loyalty to his task and to himself. He has shown clearly by the universal respect which he has won how by such qualities race prejudice may be overcome. The *Nation* without Mr. Hamilton is not itself. THE DRIFTER

Correspondence

An Oriental View of Education

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the fact that without democratic education democracy cannot become a dynamic organization, I see how important it is to democratize education everywhere. Having heard from typical Americans that to be educated is to be expected to make more money in a clever way, I must say that the American aim of education does not seem to me better than the Oriental, which is for one's fame or vainglory or the fancy of a king. How unsatisfactory the American college is from a democratic point of view is obvious enough. On campus, fraternity aristocracy, and in office, trustee dictatorship, prevail. Why is the college not a non-economic and independent institution, even so far as the students are concerned? Is it not astonishing to recall the arbitrary dismissal of one professor after another? People who conduct and support a college do not tolerate truth. That seems to be traditional.

Two of the many arguments of my most inspiring teacher, now an exile, are (1) that man is still the descendant of animals, and (2) that to a gentleman or lady truth is more annoying or painful than falsity. It is because he puts forth reasons against emotions that my teacher can no longer hold an academic post. How, then, can it be assured that the autocratic trustees of a school will employ a graduate of the college which stands for truth?

In conclusion, I wish to urge the adoption of the Fabian idea—to publish the results of research; the Chautauqua idea—to share with the populace knowledge gained; and the Pittsburgh idea—to study and work alternately. Students ought to learn practical politics and understand the problems involved in their social life. The word academic must acquire a new connotation. U. S.

Washington, June 2

[This student from the Orient has studied at five American colleges and universities.—EDITOR OF THE NATION.]

Colorado College

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Developments in administrative regulations in Colorado College may be of interest to your readers in view of discussions on this general subject which have appeared in your columns. For this reason, I transmit the following summary of new regulations adopted by the board of trustees at its annual meeting on May 28. These regulations are the net result of reports by a joint committee of faculty and trustees under the chairmanship of the president of the College. For the present purpose, I do not wish to burden your columns by explanations and arguments tracing the progress and final outcome of these measures.

Beginning in December, 1918, alumni representation on the board of trustees will be introduced. By 1920 four out of a membership of eighteen are to be chosen by the alumni. Hitherto the board has filled vacancies entirely by the method of co-optation, which is typical of American colleges.

The president has hitherto appointed faculty committees. The new regulations provide for a faculty committee on committees, with five members elected by ballot to sit with the president as chairman. The right is reserved to the faculty to select special committees and representatives by other methods on special vote.

Tenure of office of the faculty is defined. Instructors will be on annual appointment. Assistant professors will be appointed for terms of from one to three years. In some cases they may be put upon indefinite tenure. Professors or associate professors, after probationary appointments of from one to three years, will be continued on indefinite tenure.

The initiative of the president in recommendations to the board of trustees upon all appointments is recognized. It is made the duty of the president to confer with heads of departments on the appointment of instructors and subordinates. The president is obliged to confer with at least three members of the faculty, designated by the faculty committee on committees, before recommending to the trustees appointments of professors, associate professors, or assistant professors. The results of such conferences are to be reported to the trustees when the president makes recommendations.

Any member of the faculty on indefinite tenure may be dismissed only after full hearings before a joint committee of three members of the faculty, chosen by the committee on committees, and an equal number of trustees, together with the president of the College. If the professor concerned requests it, he is entitled to have a further hearing before the board of trustees itself.

Any persons especially interested may obtain copies of the new regulations by addressing the undersigned.

C. A. DUNIWAY, President

Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Col., June 10

Great Minds

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a curious illustration of the parallelism of great minds, the following extract from John F. Harris's "Samuel Butler, Author of Erewhon: The Man and his Work" may prove interesting. On page 273 the author says: "Darwin, on the other hand, had a curious low-Church tone about him, quite alien to Butler's temper. His 'May we not believe' and 'Have we any right to infer' which we meet more than once in his books, are indications of the kind of spirit that *lurked* behind." It does not appear that Darwin ever very carefully considered where his theory was leading him and what it actually involved.

JOHN J. MURPHY

New York, July 27

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The Poet in Bryant Park

By M. E. BUHLER

ANCIENT and bronzed he sits in state
Beneath his canopy of stone,
Like some old Eastern potentate
Upon his rock-hewn throne.

Beyond, the fountain's circling rim
Lifts like a chalice to the sky;
And in the spray about its brim
The sparrows light and fly.

The little children laugh and toss
Their balls before him in the breeze;
Small wonder that he smiles across
The volume on his knees!

Still flit the shadows cast by sun
And cloud along the summer grass;
He sees, with the Eternal One,
The generations pass,

And in the quiet night beholds
The stars wheel down the windless deep,
Beyond the shadow that enfolds
Far-journeying souls that sleep.

BOOKS

More War Fiction

"That Which Hath Wings": A Novel of the Day. By Richard Dehan. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The War-Eagle. By W. J. Dawson. New York: John Lane Company.

Jamesie. By Ethel Sidgwick. Boston: Small, Maynard & Company.

Towards Morning. By I. A. R. Wylie. New York: John Lane Company.

THE brilliant and versatile story-teller who calls herself Richard Dehan seems to have been determined, or fated, to use every device at her command in order to gain her present objective. She has meant to write a novel of the day, of modernism overtaken by primalism, of the world striving to bear and to comprehend its new burden, of the individual yielding himself, for better and worse, to the interests of many. But she has not been able to lay aside the mood or the tricks of a confirmed romancer. What we have as a result is an odd jumble of sober commentary, lime-lighted scene, minutely accurate detail, and conventional romantic plot—all mixed with a hand leisurely to the point of tedium. The writer has assumed for this occasion certain languid mannerisms of the sophisticated school which are annoying because so patently "put on." She has a particularly irritating trick of prefacing her sentences of description or narrative with phrases like "It will be seen that—" or "You are to imagine that—" or "You are invited to observe that—." In its graver substance, this is still another picture of the war coming home, in the nick of time, to an England pretty well given over to sloth and luxury and trivial unrest. Its villain is a high-born German, a confessed superman, who in peace times does not trouble to hide his contempt for the languid Johnnies of British society. They, of course, are destined to triumph in the event. Their secret is summed up by that able representative, the vacuous Franky, who, when the war breaks, amazes his wife by talking sense. She asks him in bewilderment: "How is it you know—all the things you know, when I've always known you knew nothing about anything?" . . . "Give it up!" answers Franky. "No, I don't. The answer is—I'm one of those fellows—and the Services are simply stiff with 'em—who are absolute asses till it's necessary for 'em to be something else." Their women, in like manner, are selfish, hysterical children till it is necessary for them to be something else—for England, righteousness, humanity, or whatever newly illumined object of worship and sacrifice. Unluckily the writer has failed to interpret this transformation in the act of presenting it. What she provides is an illustrated lecture broken by a sensational film serial, of many reels, of religious fidelity to detail, and of little bearing on any larger reality.

"The War-Eagle," by W. J. Dawson, studies the coming of the war from a fresh angle in current fiction—from the point of view of a young Englishman who has grown almost at home in America. He is still in his twenties, but already recognized as the "coming" novelist. A great publisher is his friend, a popular editor stands ready to "feature" him in the near future. The first shock of the war depresses him. He is vaguely uneasy about his own responsibility, cannot work to advantage, hesitates to bind himself by a profitable contract. Then comes the rolling back of the Germans, with the cry "Over by Christmas!" He breathes easily again, works with ardor and success. Meanwhile America is neutral, prospers in her neutrality, and goes her way in comfort until the shock of the Lusitania outrage. Our young man's patron-editor and the father of his American maiden both are lost. America is still to be roused by degrees to the point of action. For young Waller there is no more delay. He hastens to Canada for enlistment. The American butterfly Alice, cured forever of her flightiness, precedes him to the front as a nurse. A story, as will be seen, of simple and even obvious outline, but told with an air of robust common-sense and manly feeling in refreshing contrast with the confused and feverish sentimentalism of so much of our war fiction. There can be no indelicacy in surmising that this is largely the story of Mr. Dawson's brilliant son, Coningsby Dawson. The American editor of the novel complains that all the younger story-tellers in England are gone to war: "I might try some of the women, it's true; but they all want to try to write war novels, and God save me from a woman's war novel. Faked up newspaper stuff, plus sloppy sentiment—what else can they produce?" What else, one may ask, had the men produced at the pre-Lusitanian time? Certainly the women have held their own pretty well since then, though none has written herself in bronze.

Miss Sidgwick's "Jamesie" has the advantage of carrying on with the people we knew in days of peace: Ingestres and Suirs and Wickfords of that intensely clannish and caste-marked circle to which she long ago gave us entrance. Jamesie is the little son of that queer fellow Lord Iveagh Suir, whose uncertain path we followed in "Hatchways." The child is not so much the centre of events as a sort of

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touchstone; his sturdy charm is, let us say, the clean hope of England beyond her days of torment. He, at least, is there a symbol of the youth and innocence that are to build their immortal house of dreams out of the wreckage of war itself. . . . The action is very slight, and is sketched in the form of letters. At its beginning, our aristocratic circle is discovered busy to excess with infinitely little things. There is a cricket match in view, very much in the foreground, "men against women, the men playing left-hand." It is to be at Holmer, the Wickfords' place. Everybody pretends to take it lightly and is really wrapped up in it, from the Duke himself to Jamesie and the young Madeleine, whose skill and thews are to prove a real menace to condescending males. Such deeper undercurrent as there may be concerns the relations of the family scapegrace, Stephen, a youthful rake of a very old school, and the girl Joyce, fiercely modern, with whom he is trifling. Stephen is put out of the way by the enemy, who also helps to rouse the others to the nature of the world they live in. But we are not, with this chronicler, to bask in a sense of war as the great revealer—and nothing else. John Ingestre, at the front, writes of a recent thunderstorm, "a great washing glory it was, ordinary sort, loud perhaps by the Lord's standard—nothing by ours. By contrast with our viciousness and vulgarity, what you would expect. . . . This here is a superb convention, superbly played, but it isn't anything really. It stands for nothing. Respectable people can't even look at it, except to look beyond." And Lord Iveagh, somewhat earlier, questions the vaunted service of war to this generation: "Society may have been decadent a bit in England, and certainly in France; but we were not at the end of our resources, nor likely to be; God knows we are much nearer now. And if it was waking up, however we needed it, I cannot see that we have gained much, as a few millions have done lately, by waking up to discover yourself in splinters, or dead." And so, when, having encouraged us to love him, the chronicler permits Jamesie to be sent down in mid-Channel, we see her ending upon a note of question: "What had Jamesie to do with the fiend incarnate that killed him, the slashing, grasping, cowardly fiend that spreads nets and mines upon Eternity's open seas? *I do not mean Germany. Germany is not what we are making for.*"

"Towards Morning" is another woman's war story inspired by neither the feminine truculence nor the feminine sentimentalism that are commonly alleged against woman in war time. Not more than Miss Sidgwick does Miss Wylie base her fighting spirit upon hatred of a race. Her story, indeed, might be called "The Making of a Prussian," and throws much light, for a puzzled generation, upon the paradox of the human being who hums the *Frühlingsnacht* while plunging his bayonet in a woman's breast. Helmut Felde's father is a minor official in Karlstadt, Baden, a rather feeble man who only feels himself strong as a part of the great German machine. Helmut is a sensitive and imaginative child, a putative artist such as the old Germany would have nourished. Not so the Germany of the Kaiser. From the first the boy is repressed, bullied, forced into the mould until, for all practical purposes, he becomes the complete Prussian. In the end he is roused by the woman who might have been his mate—roused too late for anything but self-sacrifice. The story is told with a simplicity, a sureness of touch, a depth of feeling rarely found, hitherto, in novels of the war.

An American Observer in Russia

Russia in Upheaval. By Edward Alsworth Ross. New York: The Century Company. $2.50 net.

IT is the American Institute of Social Service which is ultimately responsible for "Russia in Upheaval," for at its instance Professor Ross went to Russia to examine and report upon the prospects of practical social progress there. The Institute was fortunate not only in its choice of an investigator, but also in the time selected for the investigation, for Mr. Ross was in Russia during the most momentous months of the red year 1917. Landing in Vladivostok in July, he travelled twenty thousand miles before returning in mid-December to a land of order and good cheer. He was thus able to observe the revolution of November, which, as he makes clear, was far more singular and significant than the revolution of March. In those five months his practiced eye scrutinized many conditions which an ordinary traveller might have deemed worthy of scant notice. Yet four of his earlier chapters are disappointing precisely because they dwell too exclusively on the picturesque aspects of races in the Caucasus and in Russian Asia. So far as style is concerned, Mr. Ross's conversational diction and homely comparisons have a cogency of their own even where he is dealing with such gorgeous scenes as the rug market at Merv. But it is regrettable that from this relatively insignificant part of his journey come nearly all of the eighty half-tone illustrations.

On the expository and analytical chapters will depend the vogue and the value of the volume. In clearing up for the lay reader the complex and perplexing conditions of revolutionary Russia, the author displays unusual skill. His historical accounts, as of revolutionary movements and parties or of the roots of the revolution, are deft in their selection of pivotal events and lucid in the relation of intervening developments. Even more valuable are the analytical sections, such as the chapter on Russian traits or another on Russian women and their outlook, for such writing not only brings home Russian life to us, but the caustic comparisons with parallel conditions in our own country may lead even casual readers to a philosophy of social progress. Certainly the author's philosophy guided his observation. The definiteness of his interests is revealed in a single fact: nothing is said about the financial condition of Russia, and yet the strongest chapter in the book deals with the relations of capital and labor.

What supremely engaged Mr. Ross's attention was the unique effort in Russia to place the control of government in the hands of the working class to the entire exclusion of the property-holding classes. This extraordinary experiment of November he attributes to the exiled revolutionists, who returned after the March revolution to put into practice the theories for which they had suffered. He points out the adolescent aspect of the undertaking, yet in spite of its cost in life, its shattering of organization, its arousal of ferocious interclass animosities, he finds so much of import in this hitherto unexampled trial of Socialism that he reads from it a grave warning to the United States. Mr. Ross, however, holds too rigorously to the ideal of scientific objectivity to hazard any open predictions about Russia itself. Still, one may read between the lines a wish and a belief that the experiment may succeed and that a United States of Russia may evolve from the present Soviet Government.

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He apparently looks to the peasants eventually to gain the upper hand of the workingmen and to build up through the Russian genius for coöperation vast accumulations of community wealth. Interesting as these speculations are, what makes the book one of the most illuminating descriptions of conditions in Russia is not merely that the author was on the ground during the November revolution, but that he knew what he chiefly wished to see and could interpret the harvest of the eye.

Drama

A French Allegory on the War

WILL the war produce a new French drama? If it does, how soon may we expect the change to become an accomplished fact? To the first of these questions most critics reply emphatically in the affirmative. But, they hasten to add, since changes in art just as in nature are gradual and imperceptible, it will require time. We must await developments.

There are indications that the expected transformation has already begun. This we infer both from certain elements of the drama that have appeared since the summer of 1914 and from the dramatist's partially new conception of life. Chief among the new elements is the war, which, with the influence of the younger generation—an influence dating from 1900 or before—has gradually modified the dramatist's attitude. As yet the transformation is only in its experimental stage. Sometimes we can detect in the characters the same old *viveurs* of the former "deliquescent" drama, with merely a veneer of heroism. Of one thing we may be sure: the "eternal triangle" will die hard, especially with the older school. Certain playwrights insist that for the present it must remain the basis of the plot, in spite of a war that has involved the most divergent peoples in a life-and-death struggle, dethroned monarchs, and undone the work of centuries.

Yet influence the war has had. Not only do all the French plays written since 1914 reflect it, but some are so saturated with its horrors as to be unfit for the stage. And as certain dramatists either cannot get their minds away from war or think that at the present time no other subject is appropriate, they have been compelled to seek a form of expression that would enable them to transform the shuddering realism of the struggle, in order to make it acceptable to the theatre-goer. Thus François Porché, whose poetry has been attracting attention for some time, conceived last year the idea of presenting the Teutonic invasion in the form of a dramatic allegory in verse, a genre which enjoyed great favor in the Middle Ages. With the exception of Rostand's "Chantecler" (1910), this play, "Les Butors et la Finette," is the only noteworthy allegory in many years. Its "sensational vogue" at the Théâtre Antoine, where more than once during the past winter it was acclaimed as the peer of "Cyrano," justifies the prediction that allegory will be a factor in the French post-bellum drama.

"Les Butors et la Finette" represents a conflict between two civilizations. La Finette is a personification of recent France; she is the unsuspecting victim of the Butors—that is, the barbarians. Young, light-hearted, generous, a lover of the arts and sciences, she invites all the nations to an international exposition. The Butors shamefully abuse their welcome, usurping so much authority that they regard themselves as masters of the country. Johann Buc, a Butor vagabond, for many years La Finette's steward, rules the court with a high hand; his compatriots, thinking they see everywhere unmistakable evidence of decadence, make insolent remarks about their hostess. François Miron, La Finette's chief architect, has long resented the encroachments of the Butors. Nor has La Finette's grandmother, the Duchess, any of her naïve confidence in Buc. The Duchess still remembers the treaty that the Butors imposed upon her in the "Salon des Marbres."

Thanks to Buc's understanding with the Marshal, commander of the Butor army, their measures for crippling La Finette's national defence are complete: inundation, upon which the safety of the country primarily depends, will be impossible. The spy-steward, gloating over his impending triumph, utters threats in monologue:

> Disparais, nation étourdie et crédule!
> Le formidable engin qui te broiera les os
> A le rhythme égal d'un pendule.
>
> Voici le peuple de Dieu,
> Voici la race profonde,
> Qui purifiera le monde
> Par le fer et par le feu.

The invasion is no sooner at hand than the sabotage of the national defence is discovered. There is a general rising. All classes acclaim La Finette, offering their lives and their property. The young sovereign appoints François, in whom she has unbounded faith, to open the sluices, in spite of the enemy. But the Butor hordes soon sweep beyond the capital, and La Finette, a prisoner in her palace, is obliged to listen to the enemy's peace proposals. The Marshal, after vaunting his invincible army, ventures with characteristic Butor taste to compliment the illustrious prisoner on her personal charms. It was only reluctantly, in the spirit of a rejected suitor, that his people resorted to armed force:

> Il (his people) avait bien souvent complimenté, souri,
> Mais on n'en voulait pas, pas du tout, pour mari.

But the Butors are willing to make their terms easy, if La Finette will submit repentantly, pay an indemnity, cede certain seaports, grant monopolies and mining concessions, and let them "develop" the country.

La Finette rejects scornfully the Marshal's terms and threatens a day of reckoning:

> Comme le crime, il aura fer et flamme.

It is no vain boasting, for her artillery is at last going into action. Better still, François has by a miraculous feat started the inundation of the country. As the flood of de-

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liverance advances, the spy-steward is shot down by La Finette herself. The fate of the Butors is sealed, and the marriage of La Finette to François will assure the country popular government.

Porché's allegory depicts not only the invasion of 1914, but also the commercial and strategic penetration of France by German spies—frequently, indeed, with the connivance of the French Government itself. The dramatist appeals to popular national sentiment; he blends symbol and observation, lyrism and analysis, fantasy and truth; he seeks to invent a supple form, ranging freely from the notes nearest prose to the fullest poetic strain. The result is a drama rich in well-balanced contrasts. The French populace, noted for its verve and irony, is depicted to the life. The characterization of Buc is excellent—the cunning, resourceful Prussian spy, who with false *Gemütlichkeit* has "served his nation" faithfully for twenty years, ever planning, ever preparing the inexorable day. Equally true, both in conception and execution, is the character of La Finette. But she alone could not represent France consistently, since her memory does not go back to the Butor atrocities of 1870. Hence the admirable rôle of the Duchess, her grandmother, who remembers everything. The poet alludes frequently in symbolism to the glorious France of the past; and in every scene a wealth of meaning lies hidden underneath the allegory.

As already said, the literary genre which François Porché has revived so opportunely has a long history. Ever since the time of Chrétien de Troyes and Marie de France, in the twelfth century, disguise has been a favorite device of French literature. Fable, allegory, symbolism, in their various forms, have served to transpose the realities of life, rendering them either more palatable or more piquant. That French writers of the Middle Ages abused allegory and personification we do not deny, and yet the results as a whole are exceedingly gratifying. With due respect for the opinion of Boileau, it is unquestionable that French literature would feel as a cruel mutilation the loss of the "Roman de Renart" and the "Roman de la Rose," to say nothing of the incomparable Fables of La Fontaine and the charming Fairy Tales of Perrault. In the garden of romance there are no brighter flowers.

WILLIAM H. SCHEIFLEY

The Nation

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Finance

Our Broadening Market for Foreign Bonds

A RISE this week in the price of foreign Government bonds to the highest level of the year gives interest to the condition of American investments in these loans. The immediate causes of the recent rise have been the successes achieved by the Allied forces on the western front, and the announcement that the $250,000,000 issue of United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland two-year 5 per cent. notes, placed here in August, 1916, would be paid off at maturity in September. With the liquidation of this loan, there will be released collateral aggregating $300,000,000, one-third of which consists of high-grade American securities.

Most of these foreign bonds have been rising in price ever since the German drive in March last. With the development of the Allied counter-offensive, however, the movement gathered force until some of the French municipal bonds touched a figure 10 points above the March quotation. Within the next six months about $300,000,000 of various foreign bonds sold here since the outbreak of the European war will mature. It is probable that most of them will be paid off, but the borrowers are in good position to refund them if necessary. The next great foreign loan to provide for will be the $142,226,000 issue of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland 5½ per cents, which will mature on February 1. A conversion clause gives the holders the right to exchange these bonds for a twenty-year 5½ per cent. issue if they care to do so. On April 1, 1919, the French Republic secured issue of $100,000,000 convertible notes will also fall due. Holders will be permitted to convert these bonds into an issue bearing the same rate of interest and maturing in 1937. The original issue was secured by various bonds of neutral countries, and was made payable in London at an exchange rate of 4.86½.

The greatest foreign loan of the war period in which American investors have been largely interested will not mature until October 15, 1920. This is commonly known as the Anglo-French 5s, and is a joint obligation of Great Britain and France, not secured, however, by any mortgage. Three foreign municipal loans—the city of Bordeaux 6 per cents, the city of Lyons 6 per cents, and the city of Marseilles 6 per cents—will mature in November, 1919. These loans are for $12,000,000. The city of Paris $50,000,000 6 per cent. issue will not mature until October 15, 1921.

Most of these issues have become popular with American investors, and because of their high income return they have been fairly well distributed. The foreign government bonds placed here were for relatively short periods, so that within two or three years nearly all of the loans will have been paid off or extended upon favorable terms. The war has changed our banking methods just as it has changed nearly every other phase of every-day life. An important incident of the new order of things has been the broader international view which American bankers have been forced to adopt, the interest which business is taking in sections of the world with which before the war we had few business relations.

WILLIAM JUSTUS BOIES

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Educational Supplement

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Pro Fide

By HARTLEY B. ALEXANDER

A MAN'S political education should never be completed. It was more than mere antique sentiment, it was the wisdom of the truest sage, that led Solon, when he described to Crœsus the happiest of men, to make his hero—after he had lived a virtuous life, reared a family, and enjoyed an honorable share of what men call goods—end his career and fulfil his happiness by death in battle for his country. Perfect citizenship is a thing not easily to be attained; while a man lives he must fight for it (most of all with his own anarchic soul), and death must overtake him fighting for it; and not until he has fallen can his fortune be accounted and the final credit set to his estate.

In a certain broad and true sense the bestowal of the ballot is a recognition of this fact. The ballot is very properly called a weapon and an election a battle; in the possession of the ballot there is a defensive safety, and in the exercise of the vote a military responsibility demanding an alert mind and an eye unwaveringly set on the good of the state. The ballot is not a security that can be put in a safety deposit and draw comfortable interest; its employment is its preservation. This means that he to whom it is committed must be relentlessly in training, learning through use the better mastery of his citizen's rights and, like a surgeon or a soldier or a man of law, improving his skill with practice—which can only signify practice of civic judgment in that study of human nature and choice of good men which is the true life of a democracy. Such a process is necessarily educational, and it is the great virtue of democracy that it recognizes no finished men—your perfect valet, for example, or hussar, or beau—and no classes save citizens, active or preparing; and both of these are in process of education.

Of course, there is a distinction between the boy at school and the man at the booth. The latter is doing what the former is preparing for, even though we own that the preparation must continue with the practice. And certainly it makes a huge difference in the voter if the boy has been properly trained. For there are principles which underlie the education of democrats in their school days, just as there are principles governing the school training of those who are to become docile subjects of an autocracy. Next to the goose-step (which is but its automatic display), the docility of the German, schoolboy and subject, has come in for our most copious contempt; but as a matter of fact, this docility is merely law-abidingness, which among ourselves we surely regard as a virtue; and if we were to analyze our antipathy, it would be found to lie not against a spirit of obedience to law, but against a spirit willing to accept laws which it has had no part in making: in brief, we are angry with the Germans because they are not democrats. Obviously (and this is what we hold against the German schoolboy), it has been the design of German education to train anti-democratic citizens—primarily, I suspect, by impressing upon the youth that admiration for loyalty, that hero-worship and fidelity to the kingly, which appeals so warmly to the youthful temperament. Their success in this design irks us, and the more because we have so widely and uncritically copied German educational methods and ideals when we should have been creating a schooling appropriate for a democracy.

The key to democratic education, like the key to democratic institutions, is liberalism. Along with the freeman's ballot, the free public school is the great fortress of democracy. But the school must be not merely free of access, it must be free in spirit; that is, it must stand for a liberal education. This means, first of all, that it must avoid early specialization. In Germany there is one type of public school for the child of peasant or laborer; there are other types for merchants, soldiers, legislators: the whole system is based upon the hypothesis that the state must be a class-state, each man born to his appropriate moves and from infancy assigned to his possible squares, like the pawns and pieces of the chess-board. America has escaped this, luckily, for its primary schools; but overhead we have been assiduously copying the Germans, and the superstructure is weighing more and more heavily upon the common-school foundations, tending constantly to contract their native liberalism. Undoubtedly, for that kind of efficiency which sees all ends from the beginning, the German method is best; but no free state can afford to foresee its destinies—except the one destiny of holding open the possibility of choice.

Liberalism means, then, primarily the training of youth to choose their own careers; which, in turn, should mean a belated entrance upon a career. For it is not to be supposed that this choice is to be made intelligent by an early smattering in many subjects and arts; such a notion springs from the fallacious confusion of meáns with ends, and it is only knowledge of ends that can make choice intelligent. Such knowledge cannot be acquired from anything short of a comprehension of the history and organization of society in connection with a fair internal estimate of the nature and possibilities of man. That is, it is knowledge that is possible only with a certain maturity—as much, at least, as is required of the voter; and it should be the aim of a democracy, in the interests of its own perfection, to keep its youth in the tutelage of liberal studies up to their majorities. The expense of such a schooling would of course be great; but its returns (granting wisdom in the process) would be inestimable. Further, if we look upon the schools, as we should look upon them, not as eleemosynary burdens, but as part of the returns which society gives its citizens, we should find in the richness of their life our reward. In no institution is the faith of a people so honestly shown as in its schools; what a generation of men is willing to teach to its children is the fairest measure of what it really believes in; and if democracy is a part of our vital faith, then by every means at our disposal our children will be trained for its preservation, which can only be through their comprehension of it.

The creation of such a comprehension should be the guiding principle of our public-school organization. Not variety of skilled technicians, but humanistic breadth of mind, is

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the true token of the liberal state. The two things are not incompatible, but they do not necessarily coexist, and it is easy to sacrifice the second to the cheaper production of the first (as Germany shows, and as we, alas! are in peril of showing). We must face the fact that democracy is dearly bought and dearly maintained, and that its liberalism is a kind of delicate oscillation of the soul which can be preserved from fatal overthrow only by an eternal gymnastic, for which no training is too precious.

If we ask what should be the form of this training, how our schools can be made liberators of the spirit, fosterers of democratic citizenship, we need not go, for our programme, beyond what is already stated. For we have said that the youth of the land are to be educated to become choosers of their own careers, and this means choosers of the whole life that they are to live, private and public: they are to be taught statesmanship in that final sense in which the statesman is the discoverer of the good of which human nature is capable. Each generation of men must make of its heirs a generation of discoverers of the good (not easeful spendthrifts of their fathers' fortunes): so only may men remain noble.

As sought concretely, this object is not beyond attainment. Man is by nature limited. He is an animal with simple appetites and few senses, whose satisfactions are the chore of our technical skills—engineerings, medicinings, purveyings. He is also a spirit, limited in his spiritual nature: for there are just three forms of the good, in a final sense, of which he has inner apprehension, and these are the goodness of truth, the goodness of beauty, and the goodness of virtue or nobility of character. Educators should be thinking of these forms of the good, to which studies are the means, when they seek to liberate the soul of youth; and in the light thereof, surely they could simplify their scholastic machinery. For we are constantly losing the end of education in our absorption with its means, forgetting that all that is harmonious and beautiful in human progress (art and science and statecraft alike) comes from the supple and simple adaptation of means to ends conceded to be good—from the law of parsimony, which is the key to all honest discipline. Or, briefly, what can compare with mathematics as giving inevitably a perception of truth and error? What betters our imaginations of beauty more than beautiful poetry or noble prose? What criticism of the virtues of one's own soul is more capable than is admiration for the ideal man as the history of human deeds and of men's utmost desires has portrayed him? The means to all these are as free as the art of printing—plus the little sacrifice of time which we should give for our democracy's sake.

So giving, with a rounded understanding of the meaning of liberalism, we may escape falling into the fallacy of the past three centuries of European civilization, which have cultivated the technical intelligence of man at the cost of the liberal and spiritual, and have brought us to the dread pass of to-day. Rather, thinking of truth and beauty and nobility, we should be ever portraying—since these are the essence of our humanity—the form and features of the ideal citizen, the hero and king of a democratic society.

For the Germans are not wrong in holding before the eyes of their youth the image of a heroic German and bidding them be loyal to him. All great nations have been built up in character and soul by the images of heroes—such a one as Achilles or Roland or Arthur or Siegfried. Our distaste for German schooling should not be that it makes idols of its heroes, but that it confuses unheroic princelings with the heroic—the Crown Prince medalled as Siegfried is an example. Democracy, too, must have its hero—perhaps a composite of its noblest, as we Americans make a kind of composite ideal of Washington and Lincoln. All liberal education should be directed to the delineation of such a national hero, whose portrait, in the nature of things, could never be completed; it would grow in stateliness with each new achievement of the humane spirit and with each renewed participation in its character. Liberal culture, indeed, can only mean that this character of the ideal citizen is in some degree manifested in all citizens; and the true meaning of equality in society is but the common possibility of men to share in such salvation.

If we would seek example, we need only turn to the greatest of all democratic movements in human history. For the living heart of Christianity is that simple faith in the redeemableness of the common man which Jesus made the prime article of its faith. In a direct and unavoidable sense the soul of all that is Christian in Christendom is the *Imago Christi*. Through this image an ecclesia of the spirit has been created which, with all defects, is still the noblest of human gains. It is an image of faith, faith in an ideal character gifted with perception of the ideal good; and upon faith of no other type can any true democracy grow or be made secure. For in a political as in the ecclesiastical democracy the fight is never ended while life lasts, and only unto the departed can the final credit be set to their estate.

Lending Money to College Students

By CHARLES F. THWING

I HAVE for twenty and more years been lending money to college boys and girls. The number whom I have thus tried to help is 342. The whole sum loaned is no less than $34,157. The average amount, therefore, loaned to each is $99.85. The extremes are about $500 and $10, with few examples of the higher extreme. Of the 342 recorded, 205 were men and 137 women, or a percentage of 59 and of 41.

The causes which lead one to lend money to students are summed up in a single fact having two parts: (1) leanness of purse, (2) richness of brain combined with nobility of character. The people who come to college represent, on the whole, the intellectual classes. Despite the interest in athletic games and sports, despite the frolics and the fun, the typical college man is, be it said without humor, intellectual. He comes to college because he has a mind, because he wants to use it, and because he wants to make it a better mind for future use. Again, at least one-half of the students in American colleges are poor. Not far from one-half are at least partially supporting themselves. It is rather dangerous for a man to support himself entirely in college; something is likely to suffer, either his studies or his health. From these two conditions, therefore, of intellectual aptitude and pecuniary need arises the cause which leads one to lend money to the able, poor, and promising boys and girls.

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The larger motive joined to this cause grows out of the cause itself and is found in the desire "to help on." This motive at once brings up the special kind of boys and girls to whom it is worth while to lend money. Such boys and girls should have at least three qualifications—sound health, moral and intellectual power, and the promise of usefulness to the community. These conditions are more or less closely associated. If sound health is lacking, money bestowed cannot serve its most useful end. The intellectual ability, bestowed by nature and enriched by previously acquired training, should be of the kind to warrant the hope of still higher development. Some men and women reach their mental limits early. Others give promise of growth and strengthening of indefinite proportions. Aid should be given to those who hold forth such promise. It is not worth while to attempt to fertilize sand-banks. The element of moral capacity is even more important than the intellectual gift. The student who is to receive any pecuniary advantage should be sound at heart and to conscience true. If the student is a man, his will must be strong enough to resist the assaults of appetite—the characteristic temptation of men. If the student is a woman, she must be vigorous enough to maintain her womanhood against the insidious enticements of self-consciousness—the peculiar temptation of women.

Such ability on both the moral and intellectual side results in proper scholastic standing. The third quality, the promise of future usefulness, of course includes the two just named, but it also embraces ambition, initiative, energy. The college is not justified in wasting itself on incompetents.

The money granted the student may take either of two forms, a gift or a loan. The gift was formerly the more usual; the loan is now becoming so. The latter method has certain advantages. As a class, students are conscientious and courteous and wish to make just compensation for every favor received. It is therefore more natural for them to regard money accepted as a loan. To the college, on the other hand, the loan on its repayment represents a means of increasing the power of the college in helping.

I believe that a student is justified in incurring a debt which he can remove within three or four years after graduation. Most men and women on leaving college can earn in this time enough to meet all college debts. Few of them have assumed a debt of more than $1,000, most of them less than $500. A few in extreme cases may have incurred obligations of $2,000. The larger sum should have been sufficient to meet all bills in many colleges. These sums, except perhaps the larger ones, the student of ordinary earning power should under ordinary conditions be able to repay in three or four years. In fact, most boys and girls, with economy, could do so within half that time.

The answer to the question of how large a debt is justifiable is related to another question—how much money should a student seek to earn at college in order to lessen the amount that he borrows? It is clear that no man or woman in college should so spend time and strength in self-support as seriously to impair the value of his education. Students should keep constantly in mind that the purpose of their being in college is not to earn their bread. They, and the college, too, must understand and feel that the object to be held supreme is the cultivation of power for service.

Loans are usually made without security. Frequently students take out a life insurance policy of $1,000 or $2,000 in favor of the creditor; and if a creditor wishes such security, it is fitting for the student to provide it. But the annual premium increases the debt of the student, and the risk of his death is small. One greatly prefers to interpret the obligation as one of honor and to accept the risk of death.

The attitude of students towards their debts is always to me most interesting. Generally it is one of gratitude. Hundreds of letters that I have received from students, expressing their appreciation of what has been done for them, make pleasant reading. Yet it must be confessed, always with a sense of sorrow and sometimes with a sense of shame, that there are students who do not pay their debts, who even do not appreciate the obligations under which they have consented to put themselves. The causes which create this condition and conclusion are several—chiefly self-indulgence that may be called a lack of personal honor, and general inefficiency. Another cause of delay in repaying debts is the need of helping to educate brothers and sisters. This motive, of course, is most worthy, and the consequent delay is justifiable. Sometimes death prevents the repayment of a loan, but this seldom occurs.

In order to make preventable delays as slight as possible, I have always found it advantageous to keep up a close relationship with the college graduate who is a debtor, as well as with other graduates. Distance in time and place promotes forgetfulness and neglect. Once outside college gates, it is easy to think the college rich and in no need of money. Therefore the debtor should be told the truth as clearly as may be. He is, be it added, usually grateful for such reminders. It is helpful, too, to advise graduates not to wait to make large payments. Five or ten dollars remitted monthly soon lets daylight through the hard, dark wall of a college debt. It is also helpful for students to be made aware that interest on a loan, even if it does not exceed 3 per cent., mounts up in the course of years.

Certain questions naturally emerge. First: Do students spend money wisely? This question applies to the well-to-do as well as to the borrowing class. On the whole, I believe they do. Their danger lies in wasting money in small expenditures and in careless bookkeeping. Second: Do students or their parents deceive college officers in making claims of poverty that are more or less fictitious? Seldom, is the reply; and when there is deception, its detection is usually easy enough. The fact is that boys and girls who want to come to college, and whose parents want them to come, are not of the dishonest sort. Third: Does the fact of a debt often serve to alter the choice of a profession or to delay marriage? In certain instances it does. I am sure that some men enter the teaching profession, which lies closest at hand to the graduate, in order to pay college bills, and often continue in it although their purpose was to use it simply as a means. Their early and constant purpose has been set aside by the interests and claims of the schoolroom. Most women, too, decline to become wives until their college debts are settled.

In conclusion, I wish to say, and to say emphatically, that the lending of money to college men and women, under the conditions suggested, seems to me one of the most effective ways of aiding our common democracy. The money given by the members of the community to the college for helping able, promising, and poor girls and boys comes back to the democracy in the form of nobler character and of greater personal efficiency. The result is a thousand-fold gain.

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A New Educational Adventure

IT is clear that the Great War has not only raised many new social, political, and economic questions, but it has also served to restate and emphasize many old, long-recognized evils in our present organization. Never in the history of the world has there been a time when it was so essential as now for thoughtful people, conscious of their obligation to humanity, to combine in novel and efficient ways for the single-hearted consideration and criticism of existing ideals and institutions in the hope of suggesting practical betterments and readjustments. When the war is over a process of unparalleled reconstruction must begin which must take account of all that has been done and all that remains to be done.

With a view to meeting these manifold problems and preparing the way for their solution, a group of public-spirited and patriotic citizens have organized a novel type of school for men and women which they trust will form a permanent and important addition to our present educational institutions. The *Nation* has already given a preliminary account of the plan in its issue of May 11, but we are now in a position to give fuller information in regard to it and the spirit in which it is being received by intelligent onlookers.

Those interested in promoting the new school are very anxious that the public should understand and sympathize with their aims, for they feel that it should be built up quite as much from without as from within; otherwise it will miss its chief purpose. It is not to be an asylum for the unseated, disbarred, and unfrocked any more than it is to be a stronghold of established tradition. A group of instructors is being selected who recognize the pressing necessity of collecting accurate information about political, social, and industrial conditions, and who are capable of bringing our ever-increasing knowledge of natural science, history, psychology, and anthropology to bear on the one all-absorbing task of social and economic readjustment. The object of the school will be to give properly qualified and earnest men and women, whether they have had an academic education or not, an opportunity to carry on serious and profitable advanced research in the fields of government and social organization. Here they may not only study the actual conditions and follow the changes which are constantly taking place in our dynamic society, but they will be enabled to see our present difficulties in the light of scientific, philosophic, and historical knowledge. Hitherto there has commonly been a fatal gap between so-called theory and practice. It is the chief business, as we understand, of the new school to bridge this gap; for all intelligent practice is based on theory, and all theories that are calculated to aid in reform are nothing but broad and critical ways of viewing practice.

The regular teaching staff is to consist of perhaps a dozen men and women who have already secured a reputation as independent thinkers and writers in the social sciences—politics, economics, history, psychology, anthropology, international affairs, law, etc. These will be aided by a small group of younger assistants who will be regarded as apprentices. In addition to the regular staff, provision will be made for several lectureships to be held each year by distinguished investigators from other institutions or from the extra-academic world. This will vary the programme from year to year, and give the staff and regular students an opportunity to become acquainted with men of importance and originality who may be encouraged by the opportunity thus furnished to work out novel lines of thought which would find no place in the usual college and university courses.

In every educational institution the problem always arises whether the instruction and methods of study are to be adapted to the most gifted and promising students or to the mediocre and poor. The new school proposes to meet this difficulty fairly and honestly. In the first place it is not designed for boys and girls, who often find their way to and through college with no honest interest in study or capacity to think carefully or write clearly. It will have no attractions for any one who is not intent on real study and the acquisition of knowledge and insight for their own sakes.

Those who avail themselves of the advantages of the school will be divided into two classes according to their desires and needs. Those who wish to be merely auditors, to listen to courses of lectures and get suggestions in regard to new books and new points of view, will be registered for such courses as they wish to attend; but the institution will assume no further responsibility in regard to them.

The regular students will be few in number—perhaps a hundred might be as many as could ever be expected to fulfil the conditions in any one year. They will have to prove their exceptional intelligence and special interest in the work in hand. They should show promise of becoming high-class editorial writers, original teachers, public administrators, or their capacity for taking responsible positions where it is essential to deal with the problems of labor. Just as in the Ecole des Beaux Arts only those could expect the attention of the instructor who had some artistic gift, so in the proposed school the regular students must have gone far enough to exhibit the capacity to interest themselves scientifically in social problems, and to express themselves intelligently in discussion and writing. There will be no ordinary "examinations," no system of accountancy which enables the indifferent student to accumulate academic credit bit by bit. The only credit possible will be the willingness of the instructors to express approval of the student's ability, achievements, and promise. Every regular student will be warned of this at the outset. In this way the instructors will reach in a way as many as take the trouble to attend their lectures as auditors, but at the same time their special aid outside the lecture room will be confined to mature students of unusual ability.

In organizing the school, care is to be taken to throw the main responsibility on men and women who have had time to accumulate knowledge and experience, but who retain the energy and enthusiasm of youth. The few instructors above fifty selected for particular reasons will rely upon the younger members to take the initiative in all the constant readjustments that will be necessary if the school is to meet the needs of a dynamic society. It is hoped that no "inferiority complex" will be formed among the younger members, who in many institutions feel themselves hopelessly subordinated to men who have passed the stage of active readjustment. There will be no academic ranks or hierarchy, except the distinctions, in no way invidious, between the regular staff, upon whom the conduct of the school will devolve, the temporary assistants or ap-

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prentices, and the lecturers from the outside who will be appointed for a term only.

It is probable that there will be two terms, a winter period from the middle of October to the middle of April, and a shorter summer term from the middle of June to the end of August. As for the regular students, they will be presumed to be in the school to carry on each for himself his own chosen work with the help of the men and books which are put at his disposal. In every case each of them will have his special line of outside investigation into the social and economic and political phenomena of the world in which we live. This line he will be pursuing, regardless of terms and lectures, with such persistence as his energy permits. Informal discussion, reading, individual pondering, and above all a constant anxiety to get a first hand acquaintance with what is actually going on, will be the main ambitions of the novel institution. No mere listening to lectures and reading of books will qualify any one to receive the school's approval. The student must have the inclination to explore for himself, and the capacity to react upon his findings in the light of his knowledge of man's nature and past and present circumstances.

The high ambition of the school is nothing less than to train leaders in all those departments of social activity which affect great numbers of our fellow beings. It ought, for example, to turn out a new kind of aspirant to political office, whether legislative or administrative, who will be clever enough to gain his constituents' support by fair means, and represent their real interests, not those of his party machine or political group. It ought to turn out a new kind of teacher, who if he gets an opportunity may bring the instruction in the schools and colleges into closer connection with our needs; a new type of secretary of city clubs, who can organize and instruct public opinion; a new type of editorial writer, who can make our newspapers and magazines a source of public enlightenment beyond what they are now.

Comment

The *Nation* has asked a number of representative university men and others to comment on the foregoing article. Their replies are subjoined.—EDITOR OF THE NATION.

THE writer is in full sympathy with the programme of the Independent School of Social Science as expressed in the statement that "a group of instructors is being selected who are capable of bringing our ever-increasing knowledge of natural science, history, psychology, and anthropology to bear on the one all-absorbing task of social and economic readjustment." It might, however, be well to define what is meant by "our increasing knowledge of natural science, psychology, and anthropology." There is at present only one method known to science by which knowledge can increase, namely, the method of quantitative experimentation, used generally by the physicist and and chemist, used sparingly in natural science and psychology, and not used at all, so far as the writer knows, in anthropology. Measured by this test, the theories of evolution cannot be considered as an addition to our knowledge, since they are not based upon experiments, although they have acted as a valuable stimulus in the revolt against church authority, and have furnished the excuse for the ruthlessness of imperialistic aggression. Measured by the test of the method of quantitative experimentation, "psycho-analysis" is no addition to our knowledge. Measured by the test of quantitative experimentation, the claims of "racial biologists," Teutonic and other, are no addition to our knowledge.

The application of the method of quantitative experimentation has recently led to such additions to our knowledge as the proof of the real existence of the molecule and the electron, the beginning of an insight into the constitution of the atom, the discovery of the laws determining heredity and sex—to mention only a few of those results which may interest the layman.

If the Independent School of Social Science is to fulfil its mission, it will be necessary to familiarize the student with that method of science which alone can lead to real additions to our knowledge, and thus teach him how to discriminate between pseudo-science and scientific progress.

JACQUES LOEB

Marine Laboratory, Woods Hole, Mass.

THE announcement of a new School of Social Science invites reflections of various kinds. The names of the sponsors of the school inspire confidence and give assurance of high ideals and purposes. The establishment of a new centre of thought and research will in any event bring fresh impulses and perhaps a reorientation. If it is true that the development of political science has been retarded by the exigencies and limitations of undergraduate instruction, the planned emancipation of the faculty of the proposed school from the ordinary teaching routine will be a distinct gain. From this point of view the school may well claim to be a free school of a special type.

However, it is because I am heartily predisposed in its favor that I venture to question the wisdom of labelling the school as "independent." The Ecole Libre in Paris marked a dissociation from Government control, but what does "independent" stand for in the present case and in this country? Is it meant to imply that work in the social sciences is generally carried on in America without the requisite freedom? Are the admitted imperfections of that work due to pressure from without or to much deeper causes not easily remedied? Suppose a school of social science were started under distinctly communistic or even anarchistic auspices, I should welcome it for the thought it might contribute, as I might welcome a school founded to spread the gospel of industrial or political autocracy; but I should not expect in such a school the same range and variety of opinion as we now find represented in university faculties. A special claim of independence is dangerous because there are no novel guarantees of independence available. Endowment, voluntary support, taxation—each form has its own dangers of insidious influence and control, and we have to place our trust in the wisdom of management and the restraints of tradition.

Let the proposed school start on its career without too much of protest or challenge. It will be a very distinctive and valuable factor in contributing to the new constructive thought that will be needed more than ever during the next ten or twenty years. But it will not be able to furnish all of that thought; and if there is to be the closest coöperation between it and other schools, it will do well to avoid even the appearance of a claim to be considered a thing apart.

ERNST FREUND

The University of Chicago

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THE new School of Social Science, which is the subject of your editorial, has seemed to me, from the time I first heard of it, an unusually interesting and useful project. I am not entirely in sympathy with the sentiment of a friend of mine who told me that he had thought of writing a book entitled "Education, Its Cause and Cure." But it is impossible not to recognize that our universities, in spite of the admirable work which many of them do, are still far from being the centres of vital and independent intellectual activity. This is due, of course, to causes that lie deeper than mere externals—the formalism of organization and of instruction; it is due fundamentally, perhaps, to a deep-seated democratic instinct which will scarcely tolerate universities whose degrees the average sensible boy or girl cannot win by an average decent attention to clearly set tasks. Whether all of our universities should, even if they could, devote themselves primarily to the relatively few really competent students is a debatable question; but that it would be a great gain if a certain number of our universities did so can hardly be doubted. The interest and the value of the new undertaking seem to me, therefore, to reside very largely in just this: it will not be interested in doing the greatest intellectual good possible to the greatest possible number, but will be exclusively interested in furnishing the best possible opportunity to a few really competent person to make the most of their capabilities. A school which expects to achieve this end must obviously concern itself with quality, never with quantity; it should be so organized (or so unorganized, if you please) that there is no possible advantage to the school or its members in having five hundred students rather than fifty, or in having fifty teachers rather than ten. The new School of Social Science seems to have been so conceived, if one may judge from what has been said of it, as to justify the prediction that it will prove a successful venture.

CARL BECKER

Cornell University

IN order to comment on the proposed School of Social Science, one must distinguish between persons and things. To the persons who lead the new enterprise I doff my cap. They are courageous, high-minded, generous scholars. They are determined that we shall have greater independence and thoroughness in our social studies. In order to secure these ends, many of these men are marching out of the older institutions. As one who is left behind, I am sorry to see them go, but glad to see them try their venture, glad to wish them good luck.

The school as a "thing," as an organization, presents some striking anomalies which torment a mere administrator. It is to be "emancipated from suspected obligations to donors, trustees, and university arrangements in general." It is, however, "legally" a corporation which is to derive its income, for the present, largely from annual subscriptions pledged for five or ten years. There is no plan of financial organization which makes obligations to donors more urgent and more continuous. They are in fact on this plan not "suspected" but acknowledged. The school will do what the donors want it to do and what they continue to want it to do. The school asks for subscriptions on the basis of that promise.

With respect to the teachers, the school proposes (1) to relieve them from administrative responsibilities, and (2) to grant them self-government. The statement seems to assume that administration in other institutions is a pretence and a make-believe. In so far as that supposition proves to be false, there will be trouble in the new school.

The teachers are to be young, at least in spirit; they must, however, "have already secured a reputation as independent thinkers and writers in the social sciences." One feels some strain in the combination at the start; one wonders what it will be when ten or fifteen years have passed. Are teachers to be dismissed as they grow old, in years or in spirit?

The school clearly intends to be free from bias and fundamental in its research. Its list of studies is, however, highly specialized. Literature and philosophy—the appreciations, the values, and the intellectual presuppositions—are alike ignored. Can the programme with this deliberate mutilation be kept free and fundamental?

Why, then, is the venture so full of promise? It is not because of its form of organization. That is a protest rather than a plan. It is not because of its freedom and independence. The school is radical rather than free, in the academic sense. It appeals to men who wish to know how society should be changed rather than to those who wish to know that it should be.

But the real strength of the school is that of the persons who are making it and of the compelling quality of the cause which they serve. It is whipping us all with the lash of its protests, and that we surely need. It will set a group of good students at work with fine enthusiasm in a great cause. It may be that in time it will even learn to whip itself.

ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN

Amherst College

THE question has been asked of those interested in the new School of Social Science why an experiment of this sort is necessary. The world is to be confronted after the war by grave problems, economic, social, and political, and the solution of these problems requires all the freedom and all the special scientific knowledge possible. The natural place to look for such knowledge would be the universities, and there is no disposition on the part of the founders of the school to question their availability. Unfortunately, the universities do not enjoy the confidence of labor, which will take a large part in reconstruction after the war. It is hoped that the freedom of the new school from any suspicion of capitalistic bias will win the confidence of labor. The first great purpose of the enterprise is to establish a connection between the results of economic and political inquiry and the actual efforts at social betterment. But the school also hopes to train men and women in public and industrial administration. There is a rapidly increasing number of administrative public positions for which the demand is not yet supplied, and of industrial positions for the regulation of the personal relations between employers and employees. In both these fields adequate scientific investigation is needed. The school hopes to furnish this and to connect this critical social development with the broader results of mature scholarship.

FRANCES A. HAND

Windsor, Vt.

WITH reference to the new graduate School of Political and Social Science, one must not overlook the fact that while its advantages will be many—so many as to warrant

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its establishment—after all it merely adds another instrument of research in the political and social sciences.

Most of the objects aimed at in the formation of the new school could be accomplished by establishing a foundation to offer an annual prize of a substantial sum, say $50,000, in political and social science. A standard should be set equal to that acquired by the Nobel Prize. Competition should be open to all the graduate schools of the United States. Liberals and radicals should be allowed a voice in selecting the topics or fields of research. A recognized body of able thinkers should be constituted to establish standards and judge results. No university board of trustees would dare to bring upon itself the stigma of opposing the directors of the foundation.

What would be the effects of such a plan? The extent of the thinking and the volume of literature produced would be far greater than under the scheme recently launched. Its depth and thoroughness should be no less. The supreme advantage would be that it would focus the nation's best minds on what should be our ideals in political and social relations. A self-perpetuating body of this nature would eliminate the breach of continuity in national progress which results from frequent elections and changes of administration. It would supply the one element that a benevolent autocracy possesses—continuity of reign. National progress would be purposeful rather than haphazard. The nation would become conscious, and its progress towards democracy within and its capacity for international leadership would be abundantly increased. ELISHA M. FRIEDMAN

Council of National Defence, Washington, D. C.

REVIEWS

Studies in School Efficiency

Problems in State High School Finance. By Julian Edward Butterworth. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company. 99 cents.

Rural Education and the Consolidated School. By Julius Bernhard Arp. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company. 99 cents.

DR. BUTTERWORTH, who contributes the first of these two recent additions to the School Efficiency Monographs, prefaces his array of facts and figures by an interesting sketch of the financing of the American high school from its first appearance in the form of the Latin grammar school to the present. The Boston Latin Grammar School, prototype of its kind, was assured of existence by private subscriptions amounting to something over £40. A few years later the rental of certain lands owned by Boston was set apart by the city for the school. There were also occasional bequests and tuition fees. Other Colonial Governments aided their schools by land grants. In the South endowments were frequent. Sometimes the income from liquor licenses and from licenses of peddlers was set aside for secondary schools. But the high school had to fight its way. Although in most of the States it was considered a part of the "common" or "public" schools established by law and hence entitled to a share of the general educational fund, such application of money rested with the local district; in other States, the term "common schools" was not interpreted to include high schools, or the Constitution specifically designated the elementary grades as solely entitled to public money. It was not until the seventies that, with Maine leading the way, the States began to enact laws definitely for high schools.

The questions to which Dr. Butterworth addresses himself are: How may the burden of the high school be equalized, as, for instance, between the county and the State? To what extent have the laws governing the financing of high schools affected educational standards? How are backward communities to be brought to the point of appreciating the high school? What conclusions may be drawn concerning high-school finance? These and related inquiries he pursues in detail, citing the practice of the various States and presenting the considerations upon both sides of disputed policies. He looks forward to a simplification of the present complex system of public-school support by the use of a single fund for the entire organization.

A larger number of readers will be interested in Superintendent Arp's presentation of the problem of the rural school. Unlike too many specialists, he does not fix his eye so entirely upon the centre of his interest as to be oblivious of the surroundings. He shows us, not the rural school as an isolated thing, but the rural school as an important activity of rural life. His opening chapters have as much to do with the setting of the rural school as with the institution itself. This careful viewing of the field adds weight to his conviction that nothing short of a revolution can meet the demands of the time. In almost the first words of his preface he declares:

> The gist of the problem is to establish a new school in which the essentials of a modern education can be taught. The old school, as still found in over 90 per cent. of the rural districts, does not lend itself to such a programme; and no amount of repair, addition, varnish, or veneer will transform it into an efficient, modern institution. Rebuilding is absolutely essential.

The way out? Consolidation: "Absolute faith in the idea and efficacy of consolidation is preëminently the message of this little volume."

The obstacles in the way of consolidating schools and thereby substituting one good one for several weak ones are regarded by the author as overrated. He analyzes the alleged difficulty of transporting pupils to the consolidated school and the cost of the school. Concerning the latter, he calls attention to the distinction between the cost per pupil per day of actual attendance and the cost as the farmer thinks of it per farm or school district. On the former basis, since the average attendance at the consolidated school is apt to be better than that at the schools it supplants, the cost of education under the new arrangement is frequently no more than it was under the old. Indeed, it was economy that led to the first consolidated schools, the cost of transportation being much less than that of teachers, and the taxes, uniform for the entire township, not being affected. But of course the determining factor in the problem should be, not trouble or expense, but the kind of education provided. Backward communities must be persuaded or shamed into giving their children the same chance that others have.

Whether one agrees with Superintendent Arp or not as to the place of the consolidated school, his book is an informing, common-sense discussion of a matter that will not loom less in the public mind as our soldiers return from Europe with quickened appreciation of the value of a first-class education and the right to it of every American child.

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Democracy in Education

Democracy in Education: A Social Interpretation of the History of Education. By Joseph Kinmont Hart. New York: The Century Company.

THIS book is a reinterpretation of the great field of the history of education in the light of present-day tendencies and needs, a field which has also been the background for distinctive studies in religion and philosophy. We have here not simply the writer's perceptions of things, but a real appreciation of the conditions under which democracy has developed; it is a genetic study in which Dr. Hart gives the values of the past in terms of the present and in which he emphasizes the struggle of democracy, from the time of the Greeks on, to become a vital power. The great force which has hindered its progress, a force which has, however, diminished with time, is what the writer calls the folkways, a term borrowed from Professor William G. Sumner's well-known study on this subject. Professor Sumner says:

> The mind in the crowd seems different from the minds of the individuals which compose it; there enters the work of stronger minds, for the crowd has a mystic power greater than the sum of the powers of its members.

The story of the struggle by which the race has gradually been escaping out of these folkways, the world of tradition and fixed attitudes, where the moral is merely the customary and the conventional, forms the main part of this social study. The history of all our great institutions may be traced back along this path; and that we ourselves have not completely sloughed off this spirit is seen in the folklore of families and in the provincialisms of sects and communities.

The history of democracy in education is thus the history of the struggle between these tendencies: tradition, convention, institutionalism, and change, growth, reconstruction. The writer makes it clear that democracy is really a state of mind, a keen sense of common, human relationships and the realities of life; more directly, it is the process through which the immature members of a community are made ready to live in this democratic and scientific universe. Plainly enough, as with the folkways, its basis is the social bond, the life in the whole body, although the individual must not sink his personality in it; its discipline is self-discipline, not imposed from without; its education is an inner process, evolutionary. The problem of democracy thus becomes the problem of education, which is, of course, the progress out of the folkways, which Dr. Hart feels have yet too strong a hold on our schools.

The author feels that the crucial question of the time is whether our civilization shall conform to schemes handed down from the past, everything to be fitted into the old patterns, or whether education shall be free to use the new energies which have been released, the new patterns suggested by new conditions. He strongly emphasizes the fact that thinking, only, does not lead to truth; what one feels and believes, his spiritual possession, is more fundamental to life and growth than what one reasons out and proves. The book has many merits, too, aside from its exposition of the fundamental theme and its keen and logical analysis of the subject. It is an organism; it is concrete, yet always suggestive of the general, and at times of the universal; it is free from masses of detail; and, while it is sufficiently technical for the author's purpose, it has exceptional literary value. It will prove a stimulating book for the teacher, for the worker in social studies, and for the general reader.

The Art of Fiction

A Manual of the Art of Fiction: Prepared for the Use of Schools and Colleges. By Clayton Hamilton. With an Introduction by Brander Matthews. New York: Doubleday, Page & Company.

THIS is a revised and enlarged edition of Mr. Hamilton's "Materials and Methods of Fiction," published ten years ago. Its introduction by Professor Matthews is of the same date, though a word of postscript is appended here. In neither introduction nor postscript is there any direct mention of Mr. Hamilton's study of fiction. One is to imagine the author issuing his first book under the benign and slightly detached smile of his old master and later colleague. The fact is, this book, with all its good sense and earnest effort, bears the marks of youth, of an academic youth which has not yet forgot the art of thesis-making. It is a work so neat, so sure, so bookish as only a budded master of arts can produce. We have no opportunity of comparing this revision with the original, but take it that its preparation for classroom use has involved expansion rather than rewriting, and the addition of certain simple apparatus now, to all appearances, held indispensable in the process of turning a text into a textbook.

The addition to each chapter of a list of "review questions" and another list of "suggested reading" is supposed to work wonders nowadays with almost any sort of book. The present reviewer cannot feel that the process has really "prepared" this ambitious little treatise for the use of schools and colleges—certainly not of the former. Imagine a high-school boy intelligently answering such a question as: "Define the spheres of the respective contributions of art, philosophy, and science to the search for truth." Plainly, the only thing he can do is to turn back and see what the learned author has said to excuse such a "question," and to echo it back as faithfully and quickly as possible. And he will not find even this the easiest of tasks.

For an advanced and seriously interested student, on the other hand, the book, without its more or less perfunctory quizzing machinery, should be of notable value. It represents a thoughtful and independent effort to straighten out the mess in the huge grab-bag labelled "Fiction" that dangles just within the gateway of the current book-mart. Its trimness and cocksureness are not to its disadvantage; they define a position which such a student should be able to study profitably. It "covers" very thoroughly, in its own way, the field of its undertaking. Almost any of Mr. Hamilton's definitions, taken by itself, might be challenged by a person who made his survey from a different elevation or angle. Instance the basic definition which he sets in italics at the outset: "The purpose of fiction is to embody certain truths of human life in a series of imagined facts." The present reviewer, in like case, would begin with: "The right object of fiction is the interpretation of human nature or character in action." And, from such a beginning, he would travel a different road and see different sights by the way. But Mr. Hamilton's discussion, on the whole, is marked by good sense and good taste. His initial distinc-

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tions between fact, truth, fiction, and actuality are at the very bottom of the matter. Here and there is a flaw in his trimness. We assent cordially, for example, to the second of these sentences, and to the substance of the first: "Every novelist of genuine importance seeks not merely to divert, but also to instruct—to instruct, not abstractly, like the essayist, but concretely, by presenting to the reader characters and actions which are true. For the best fiction, although it deals with the lives of imaginary people, is no less true than the best history and biography, which record actual facts of human life; and it is more true than such careless reports of actual occurrences as are published in the daily newspapers." But we balk at the word "seeks," as we balked at the word "purpose" in the other definition quoted, and at similar imputations of moral self-consciousness on the part of the artist. How much bigger is that conception of Goethe's cited (a bit slyly?) in Mr. Matthews's introduction: "If there is a moral in the subject, it will appear, and the poet has nothing to consider but the effective and artistic treatment of his subject; if he has as high a soul as Sophocles, his influence will always be moral, let him do what he will." Mr. Hamilton, we hasten to say, accepts the most modern view of the proper indifference of art to moral convention. He rightly holds that Swift and Rabelais are more moral than D'Annunzio, because of their sanity and vigor; more dubiously recommends Daudet's "Sapho"; and finally, in the vulgate, goes the whole hog with the declaration that "there is no such thing as an immoral subject for a novel: in the treatment of the subject, and only in the treatment, lies the basis for ethical judgment of the work." All very good—if anybody at any time had ever been able absolutely to distinguish the ethical from the æsthetic in a work of art.

Notes

Education and Psychology

THERE seems no principle of order in the chapters of Professor Charles Hubbard Judd's "Introduction to the Scientific Study of Education" (Ginn; $1.80), although he states that it is intended as a textbook and that it has grown out of his experience in giving an introductory course to students preparing to become teachers. But the material it offers is certainly much better adapted to the needs of such students than the course in the history of education that was formerly required. Professor Judd works in no small amount of history, but it is made to appear incidental and subordinate to the practical work of the twentieth-century teacher. He also gives a hint of some of the great battles that are being waged over educational policies. But in the main he is occupied, and rightly, with matter more directly pertinent to the activities of the busy instructor, as the school building, grouping pupils in classes, individual differences, methods, classroom management, play, and health supervision. The usefulness of the book is enhanced by the "exercises and readings" at the close of each, which set definite problems as well as put questions that may be answered from the pages of the volume.

PSYCHOLOGISTS are busy devising impersonal tests to indicate the mentality of children. Some stop at this point, while others claim that deductions can be made which will show in what line of work the child should later engage. It was to be expected that the tests would eventually be used to classify groups of school children. This has now been done by Professor Rudolf Pintner, whose tests and results are given in a small book, "The Mental Survey" (Appleton; $2 net). The plan of the author is to test all the children of each grade in six schools, using six psychological tests; then to reduce individual ratings to averages and to classify the schools according to these averages. The results to be obtained from such group surveys may be used in determining feeble-mindedness, and for educational and social improvement. Just how far such tests, uninterpreted by the personal acumen of the investigator, can be trusted is still a doubtful matter. Professor Pintner, who was aided by several assistants of unknown experience, gives comparison tables from his ratings and from the "guesses" of the children's teachers. They differ decidedly, but not more so than do the tables made by the scientific Yerkes and Binet tests on the same individuals. Which, then, is the more reliable? One thing to be remembered is that mathematicians are very scornful of the psychologist's use of averages and series. As an example, Professor Pintner gives a table of averages which bears very hardly on a rural school when compared with a city school. He makes no comment or allowance for the fact that the former had only 83, while the latter provided 740 cases, nor does he consider the disturbing factor that city children are quicker of speech than rural children of the same ability, and that speed in answering is usually a preponderating element in these tests. Nor does he allow for the fact that in a small community children are likely to be shy and confused in the presence of strangers, and so are prone to answer wrongly even about the things they know. Finally, is it necessary, in a scientific experiment, to put the object in a compliant attitude by asking the experimenter to avoid letting the object know that it is a test and to suggest that it is intended as an amusement? Does a child's ability show itself best when tested or when amused? The question is at least relevant in vocational guidance.

THE desire to improve the human machine is a specialty of Robert Grimshaw, who now publishes his lectures with the title of "Lessons in Personal Efficiency" (Macmillan; $1.50). The first impression produced by such glowing accounts of how every one can be changed so as to improve each waking moment is that of wonder. Why does not the author apply his own knowledge and become the most efficient man of the age; just as one wonders why Mr. Babson does not apply his advice to others to his own enormous profit? This is hardly just, however, because some preach better than they practice. Such a collection of definitions and of methods of improving defects is valuable. The author has given a comprehensive review of information on the ways of wasting time and opportunities, and he explains methods of correction in a clear and simple fashion. If his readers will first develop their will power and then practice the exercises to improve efficiency where it is most needed, their power-value will increase. Even the casual reader will be interested to see how wasteful and desultory life is.

Biblical Texts

IT is to be feared that many students who have learned that the Hexateuch is regarded by most scholars as a

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compilation of four principal documents, the Jahvist, the Elohist, the Deuteronomist, and the Priest-code, have only a general idea of their likenesses and differences, but no clear conception of the contents and the extent, especially of J and E, since they are not so easily separated from each other. To bring out the individuality of the several documents more vividly, Professor Edgar S. Brightman has edited afresh "The Sources of the Hexateuch" (Abingdon Press; $3 net) by printing J, E, and P separately in the text of the American Standard Version, "according to the consensus of scholarship," and prefacing each with a brief introduction in which the main points are summarized. That this edition will be welcomed by students goes without saying; and it deserves commendation, even though the "consensus of scholarship" is often conspicuously absent, and the opinion of those with whom Professor Brightman agrees does not always appear to us the right one. This may be unavoidable; but in the brief footnotes, where the differing views are cited with the names of those who support them, one misses at times complete accuracy in detail. Moreover, the fragmentary character of J and E should perhaps have been brought out more clearly to the eye and to the imagination.

The Classics

TWO little books entitled "Handbook for First-Year Latin Vocabulary" and "A Notebook for First-Year Latin Vocabulary," both by Stephen A. Hurlbut and Barclay W. Bradley (American Book Company; 24 cents), are intended to supplement Professor Lodge's "Vocabulary of High School Latin," first, by differentiating the vocabulary of the first and second year of Latin, and, secondly, by taking account of word relationship. The "Handbook" is intended for the teacher and the "Notebook" for the pupil. The latter has the Latin words, arranged as nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc., on the left-hand page, and opposite a manuscript page on which the pupil is to write the English meaning of the words he meets in his daily lesson. This should be a valuable exercise. It may be doubted whether the authors are well advised in enjoining on their pupils to "try always to select a single English definition for each Latin word." Many teachers would be of a precisely opposite opinion. A strong point in both books is the emphasis on derivation and word relationships.

THIS new edition, by Professor Francis W. Kelsey, of Cæsar's "Commentaries," with an introduction, notes, a companion to Cæsar, and a vocabulary (Allyn & Bacon), includes Books I–IV of the Gallic War, with selections from Books V–VII, and also selections from the Civil War, including the battle of Pharsalus—a particularly good choice. It seems a pity that any one should spend a year in reading Cæsar and still have no knowledge at first hand of one of the decisive battles of the world. This book is probably superior to any school edition in the number and attractiveness of the illustrations, many of them colored. The dullest pupil or teacher must surely have his interest excited or quickened in turning over these pages with views of landscapes in France and Belgium, with names rendered familiar to readers of newspapers during the last four years. Professor Kelsey's introduction gives many extraordinarily interesting parallels between ancient and modern warfare. Beneath a picture of a "French helmet, type of 1915," is the poignant comment, "This helmet was worn by Richard N. Hall, a graduate of the Ann Arbor High School and of Dartmouth College, who served in a volunteer ambulance corps in France and was killed by a shell on Christmas Eve, 1915, when driving his ambulance in the Vosges Mountains." Beside it, for comparison, there are early Gallic helmets from the British Museum. There is another picture of a French soldier hurling a hand grenade. "He is standing in a trench. His head is protected by a steel helmet. With the left forearm he holds a shield." Five years ago helmets and shields were the property of antiquaries, but to-day they are probably used by a larger number of men than ever before in the world's history. The maps are abundant and seem very good; the modern names are given as well as the ancient, which enhances their value. The companion to Cæsar has over a hundred pages of grammar and syntax, which would entirely supply the place of a grammar for an ordinary student. The notes on the first two books give the direct Latin for the reported speeches, which is an invaluable aid, first for the understanding of the meaning, and second for obtaining a grasp of Latin syntax, in which indirect constructions play such a leading part. Altogether the book seems an unusually good example of its class.

Modern Languages

ENGLISH

THE most important part of Dr. William Chislett's little book, "The Classical Influence in English Literature" (The Stratford Press; $1.50 net), is the catalogue of English authors who have translated from the Greek and Latin or have manifested a knowledge of the classics in their works. It is an impressive list in length and will be found useful for reference, but it does not include Conington's Virgil, or Sir Theodore Martin's admirable translations of Horace, or W. H. Mallock's version of Lucretius in Omar Khayyám quatrains. In one way, Dr. Chislett is bringing up a battery of artillery to force an open door. English education is based firmly upon the classics; no English writer can escape the classical influence. If they did not translate, they imitated, or composed variations upon classical themes. The other essays and notes are rather miscellaneous in character, ranging from William Vaughn Moody's "Feeling for the Seventeenth Century" to the "Influence of Nonnus on Elizabeth Barrett Browning," and rather slight in content. The statement that George Gissing "*amused himself* . . . by studying Greek metres and in reading classics in the British Museum" has an odd look to one who knows the facts.

A BOOK adapted for the use of advanced schools and colleges, "English Literature," by Herbert Bates (Longmans, Green; $1.50), is intended to be an aid in the study and appreciation of literary masterpieces. To this end there are general-reading lists; collections of masterpieces and anthologies; a bibliography of British life and scenery—an unusual feature in a textbook—which should give accurate and vivid ideas of the country described; excellent illustrations, both portraits of authors and pictures from nature; and a list of books representing tendencies in contemporary literature. In the closing chapters there are practical suggestions for classroom study, and a brief, com-

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prehensive outline for reviews. The author emphasizes the relation of biography to literature, although at the same time he advises that only what has a direct bearing on the work in hand should be studied; for the main thing is to make the reading profitable by the appreciation of the human element, the convictions and passions of the writer's heart. In sum and substance the student thus acquires understanding of what the nation regards as precious, of the ideals that Englishmen have followed in their writings for thirteen centuries. As in all other phases of the world of thought, these ideals have changed from age to age; and the study of the passing from one to another, from the formal classicism of Addison and Pope to the lyric romanticism of Keats and Shelley, furnishes the enduring interest.

TEXTBOOK is the last word Dr. Frederick Houk Law would wish applied to "Modern Short Stories" (Century), although he concedes it is "A Book for High Schools." In truth, his anxious care that no one shall suppose the book is to be studied does not disguise the fact that he has very clearly in mind the youth who is quite unacquainted with literary forms. The essential features of the short story he develops in a very informal but carefully devised introduction in sane limits. His restraint here, where many have gone astray, promises well for the selections. Collections of classic tales are so numerous that it is refreshing to read statements like these: "Here is a collection that is entirely modern. The authors represented are among the leading authors of the day, the stories are principally stories of present-day life, the themes are themes of present-day thought." A captious critic might object to the inclusion of some of the dialect stories as unlikely to help the pupil's command of English. A wide reader will miss some of his favorite authors. But most will recognize as excellent the twenty-two stories by as many different authors, for there is not only great diversity of subject, but there are many grades of difficulty, enough to lead the pupil up to the best. The appreciative and explanatory notes at the back, as well as the suggestive questions on each story, will aid any inquiring reader, whether in or out of school.

THE history of many important political and economic movements in our country during the last five years may be read in "President Wilson's Addresses," edited by George McLean Harper (Holt). Some of the subjects discussed are the world war; our relations with Mexico; the submarine menace; the duties of the naturalized citizen; and others of a miscellaneous character. Professor Harper has, in his introduction, reëmphasized that the author is versed in jurisprudence, history, politics, literature, besides having been the president of a university and the Governor of his State. The addresses show us the real man in his estimates of great public matters in the making; they show us, too, the literary artist, with the teacher's gift for instruction—for he cannot quite doff the teacher's mantle. On every page President Wilson has carried the aptitudes of the scholar, the teacher, the man of letters into the field of economic and political questions. The literary quality of these addresses will give them an added value for the general reader.

TO instil American ideals and patriotism is the object of "Our Patriots," by Wilbur F. Gordy, and "My Country's Voice," by Frances Nimmo Greene (Scribner; 50 cents each). Both are addressed to youth. The first is a collection of chapters upon some of our great men and women, beginning with the Pilgrims and coming down to Abraham Lincoln, with Frances E. Willard and Clara Barton brought in out of their chronological order, evidently so as to end with the appealing figure of the martyr President. The other book is made up of selections in prose and verse, ranging from an anonymous "America Wakes" to the Gettysburg Address and the Concord Hymn. A third manual of patriotism, "My Country's Part," by Mary Synon (Scribner; 50 cents), is in part narrative, in part expository and argumentative. It tells of our getting into the war, and sets forth the considerations that impelled that action, something about the meaning of war, and the various activities at home that have resulted from our entrance into the conflict.

THE fear which Tennyson felt concerning his work that, having been pronounced a classic, it might lose its interest by over-editing for school use, must be the first feeling of one who finds "Tom Brown's School Days" furnished with notes and published as an English text (Ginn; 80 cents). As the book has been edited, however, by H. C. Bradby, an assistant master at the Rugby School, the notes have a freshness and point not to be encountered in the usual textbook. They do not indulge in curious information, but confine themselves for the most part to the elucidation of facts with which a boy of the present generation, especially an American, could not be expected to be familiar. If they are judiciously used by an instructor, we see no reason why they should turn this excellent story into a bore.

CHILDREN can hardly be said to be in pressing need of something to make them appreciate the approach of holidays, but the purpose of Carolyn Sherwin Bailey's "Stories for Every Holiday" (Abingdon Press; $1.25 net) is apparently to show how these festal occasions may be made useful as well as enjoyable. Even for this, boys and girls may not invariably thank their well-intentioned author, but like their elders in analogous situations they will probably be able to take pleasure in the stories without running the risk of spoiling a holiday by putting them into effect.

"LESSONS in English," by Arthur Lee (Charles E. Merrill Company), comes to us with the authority and weight of a new "Reed and Kellogg"—a great recommendation in the eyes of those teachers who have used that well-known series in the past. Without attempting to separate its special contribution from what it owes to its valuable predecessors, it is possible to praise this little book as it stands almost without qualification. Its understanding of the pupil is keen and sympathetic, and it uses great tact in its suggestions for subjects for themes and letters—subjects that would naturally arouse the child's wish to express himself. There is great skill shown in awakening an interest in words and their meanings, and in anticipating and correcting the more common difficulties. Above all, the book is thoroughly interesting. Although it furnishes abundant drill in grammar, spelling, and punctuation, it manages to achieve a variety and spontaneity, a resourcefulness and fertility of invention, that keep the lessons fresh and stimulating. The pictures and poems are well selected. The poems are quite within the range of the pupil's interest and

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experience and yet demand of him some conscious use of the imaginative powers. Much stress is laid on visualization, the training of the "inward eye," a thing of the utmost importance if the child is to develop any creative power or imagination in these days when the "movie" is flooding his mind with ready-made images while he sits, a passive spectator. For small classes, it might perhaps have been made even stronger on the imaginative side; the teacher of such small groups will be able to supplement the excellent suggestions in this book with more work in reproduction, and also, possibly, make the drill more incidental. But for average school classes the book can be used just as it is and will prove a very delightful and profitable book for both teacher and pupil.

MR. KITTREDGE'S name on the title-page of an English grammar is alone a guarantee of excellence, but a perusal of "A Concise English Grammar," by George Lyman Kittredge and Frank Edgar Farley (Ginn; 72 cents), shows that the book has a number of special virtues to recommend it. In the first place, it is, as its title promises, concise; in fact, a marvel of conciseness. Everything finds its place in that clear, logical framework, making a textbook that is thorough and complete. In these days when Latin and Greek are losing their proud place as vested interests in education, it is a relief to feel that grammatical studies so full and so sound as this admirable textbook outlines are being undertaken in our schools.

IN "Good English," by Henry Seidel Canby and John Baker Opdycke (Macmillan; $1), the authors have had as their object to stress "the fresh and apposite" rather than the theoretical and abstract. We are prepared, therefore, to find the book practical, and are not surprised that the illustrative material should deal with automobiles, games, school life, Boy Scouts, the problems of salesmanship, the business of getting a living. We can see the advantage for the average pupil in beginning with his immediate world. But the authors have made almost no attempt to carry his mind beyond this—to lead it on to wider interests, to give it range, variety, and breadth. In their desire to avoid the abstract, they have settled down too complacently within the intense but limited world of the schoolboy. This weakness on the imaginative side is shown in the selections of poetry which are, most of them, of the newspaper variety. The classification seems a little artificial: "Stories in Poetry Told in the First Person," "Stories in Poetry Told in the Third Person," "Poetry that Explains," "Poetry that Argues." One longs for a little "Poetry that is Poetry." The part dealing with letters—and this is fully half of the book—is excellent. The directions, examples, exercises are the best that we have seen, and we should like to feel that every pupil could have this stimulating drill. The section on argument also is admirable in the problems set and in the fresh and energetic treatment. It is surprising that authors with such a keen sense of fact should have selected the pictures they have used to illustrate their little book. The pictures are as unconvincing and unreal as possible, without supplying in the least the imaginative element we have been clamoring for.

THE indefatigable Sherwin Cody has revised his textbooks, "How to Do Business by Letter" and "Word Study and 100% Business Speller," and his exercise books, "100% Speller" and "Exercises in Business Letter Writing" (World Book Company). Mr. Cody rightly insists not only on correctness in "business English," but also on avoidance of the stereotyped expressions that make the ordinary business letter an assemblage of jargon. His little manuals have rendered wide service to persons who have grown rusty in their English, as well as to those who have awaked too late to the fact that writing is not a superfluous accomplishment but a practical necessity. In their new form the books should reach new students.

FRENCH

IN his recent "Grammaire élémentaire de l'ancien français" (Paris: Librairie Armand Colin), Professor J. Anglade, previously known through his book on the Troubadours, aims chiefly at furnishing preparation for reading Old French texts. The essentials of phonology, morphology, and syntax are briefly and plainly set forth, and the manual may well be of use in our college courses.

WHILE disclaiming adherence to any one theory of teaching, Rosenthal and Chankin's "Grammaire de Conversation et de Lecture" (Holt) is primarily a direct-method handbook; and as the authors state that at least three or four days must be spent on each of the forty-six lessons, it is obviously intended for schools. The usual plan of the lessons is to begin with a connected passage of French on which the grammatical points to be treated are based. This is followed by a questionnaire founded on the preceding passage; the next section, styled "Explication," suggests grammatical comment and questions by the instructor; then follow word-lists, a grammar-drill exercise, and a set of English sentences for translation. The material is skilfully compiled and arranged, and the book seems well adapted for use in high and preparatory schools.

"FRENCH in a Nutshell," by Jean Leeman (Dutton; $1), intended for the use of Americans in service overseas, is a phrase and conversation book interspersed with a minimum of grammar. The word material is chosen largely with reference to hospital work and travel, and should be of some value to those for whom it is planned.

TO readers of French war books in particular, A. Dauzat's "L'Argot de la Guerre" (Paris: Librairie Armand Colin) should be a welcome reference book. The author, a well-known linguistic scholar, has gathered data concerning war slang partly from his personal experience in service and partly through extensive correspondence with officers and soldiers. The seven chapters forming the main portion of the book discuss various aspects of the subject, such as new-coined words, older survivals, borrowings from foreign languages, changes of meaning. At the end is a glossary of some two thousand words and expressions, the most comprehensive that has yet appeared.

GERMAN

AN unostentatious but serviceable piece of scholarship is the "Syllabus and Selected Bibliography of Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller," prepared by William Addison Hervey, of Columbia University (Lemcke & Buechner; $1 net).

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The syllabus has been developed gradually as the result of twenty years' experience in teaching and should prove useful to both undergraduate and graduate students. The bibliography is merely selective, but if any indispensable titles have been overlooked the reviewer has failed to notice them. Indeed, one of the chief merits of the book is the unusual handiness of information even for teachers. There are chronological tables and topical notes. One of the most interesting features is a table in parallel columns of the genesis of the first part of "Faust." Blank pages are conveniently interspersed for addenda.

POLISH

THE period of reconstruction which will follow upon the war will demand from the English-speaking peoples a closer acquaintance with the languages of the European East, if their influence is to be at all thorough. No doubt with this idea in view, a series of manuals for self-instruction is now being issued to replace the old Trubner's Language Manuals, which were sometimes useful to the philologist, but never to one who wanted to acquire a practical knowledge of a particular language. Grammars of Polish and Rumanian, hitherto inaccessible to the Englishman or American, should prove a boon now, but unfortunately this new Trubner series starts inauspiciously, for, while the Rumanian manual is excellent, so far as it goes, the Polish manual is quite worthless for self-instruction. Professors of Slavic languages who were obliged to give courses in the Polish language have struggled along hopelessly with Manassevich's "Polish Manual," in the German Hartleben series, with its ill-digested mass of details. In "A Polish Manual," edited by J. H. Freese (Dutton; $1.25 net), we get the same book in an English translation with "considerable additions and alterations." The translator tells us in the prefatory note that he has availed himself of the Polish grammars of Soerensen, Wicherkiewicz, Poplinski, Rykaczewski, and Orda, but the additional notes only pile Pelion upon Ossa, and are frequently puzzling or even incorrect. The treatment of the pronunciation, especially of the nasals and softened sibilants, is useless to one who does not hear Polish spoken. The extremely difficult subject of aspects is barely touched upon, and, while the student is, on p. 27, specifically told that perfect verbs have no present tense, the list of irregular verbs, on pp. 43–45, give invariably the present tense of the imperfect aspect under the perfect aspect of the verb. Similar inaccuracies are found throughout the book. Nevertheless, in spite of these defects, the Polish Manual will be welcomed by the teachers of Polish, at least until some better work comes to take its place.

RUMANIAN

ANOTHER manual for self-instruction, F. G. Ackerley's "A Rumanian Manual" (Dutton; $1.25), is a result of the author's attempt to master the language; and, while it also follows the corresponding excellent manual in the Hartleben series, it has in places made the subject clearer. The student who wishes to acquire the beautiful Rumanian language will be particularly grateful for the large amount of reading matter, consisting of simple sentences, fairy tales, historical essays, and Biblical extracts. The pity is that the book is apparently set up by a linotype and does not distinguish to the eye between the Rumanian and English texts. But for this, the "Rumanian Manual" is all the student will need before taking up the advanced study of the language with the aid of German or Rumanian textbooks.

RUSSIAN

THE "Russian Manual," by J. H. Freese (Dutton; $1.25 net), is "intended as an introduction to the Russian language for the purpose of self-tuition." It contains "rules for pronunciation; a grammatical outline sufficient for ordinary purposes; a number of illustrative exercises; extracts for reading accompanied by translation and vocabulary; and a few easy phrases and dialogues in every-day use, for learning by heart." The grammatical outline, though at fault in some details, is in a condensed, orderly form that should enable a diligent student to learn in a comparatively short time how to read Russian with the aid of a dictionary. So far the book will probably serve its purpose better than preceding textbooks. But Mr. Freese, instead of confining himself to this modest aim, tries to make his manual give a foundation for writing and speaking Russian. For this it is utterly inadequate. The rules for pronunciation are inaccurate and amateurish, and the exercises are too brief to be of much service. The English-Russian vocabulary does not give the Russian words in the Russian alphabet, but only in an approximately phonetic transcription—an innovation that cannot be commended. In a word, by attempting a task too large for 156 brief pages, Mr. Freese has injured a book that might have been admirably adapted to a humbler purpose.

THE "First Russian Reader," by Frank Freeth (Dutton; $1.25 net), consists of twenty pages of "words commonly used," with an inaccurate would-be phonetic transcription, twelve pages of easy sentences, with translation, and twenty-three pages of texts for reading, with English translations on the opposite pages. Now persons who have "mastered the rudiments of the Russian grammar"—and for such the book is intended—do not need to be told the Russian words for *house, not,* and *where;* and they do need adequate material for translation, with brief notes and vocabulary, but without a translation thrust upon them. The book cannot be recommended as likely to be of much service to students.

TEACHERS of Russian at the present time need more than all else a supply of texts of Russian authors, edited for the use of English-speaking students. They will welcome the series of Russian texts published by Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Company in England and sold in this country by E. P. Dutton & Company, which contains well-chosen, accented selections from Russian authors, provided with introductions, notes, and vocabularies. The books are small, each containing from thirty to fifty pages of Russian, and cheap (50 or 60 cents apiece); the mechanical execution is unfortunately not attractive, and the printing not free from errors of the press. Of the three volumes at hand, two, Lermontov's "Bela" (an episode from "A Hero of Our Time"), edited by R. Biske, and Turgenev's "Moo-moo" and "The District Doctor," edited by A. Raffi, are particularly well suited for elementary classes. Mr. Biske's editorial work is much superior to that of Mr. Raffi. The "Select Fables of I. A. Kryloff," well edited by J. H. Freese, will be useful for reading by more advanced students. Other

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numbers of the series contain tales by Chekhov and by Dostoyevsky and a "Russian Poetry Reader."

THE best textbook available for teachers who wish to use the conversational method is "First Steps in Russian," by J. Solomonoff (Dutton; $1 net). It consists of a series of pictures with accompanying text, questions, and notes; and, most important, with a good vocabulary at the close.

A COMPILATION entitled "Russian Verbs Made Easy," by Stephen J. Lett (Dutton; $1 net), is "intended for the use of business men and others who wish to rapidly acquire a command of the Russian language for everyday use." Though Mr. Lett has done his work carefully, the information here given is found in books of more general usefulness, so that the occasional gain in convenience hardly justifies this separate manual. As a work of reference, the book is inferior to "Volper's Russian Accidence Tables," published by the same firm and already noticed in these columns, and to the "Systematization of the Russian Verb," by W. H. Lowe (Cambridge University Press).

SPANISH

FUENTES and Elías's "Manual de correspondencia" (Macmillan; $1 net) offers numerous sample letters of commercial correspondence in Spanish, carefully annotated, and with exercises based on these models. There is also a complete treatment of the irregular verbs and a table of numerals. This is one of the most practical books of the kind that has yet appeared. The copious annotation of each letter will be found very useful.

Art, Music, Drama

WE doubt if any artist ever yet got his training from a textbook, but there are times when the textbook may be of great use to him. The most careful study of "Practical Art Anatomy," by E. G. Lutz (Scribner; $1.50 net), could not take the place of study in the anatomy class, if the class is properly conducted with demonstrations and if the student is made to work at the sections either in the school or at a medical college. The artist will learn more of the human figure, its structure, and its movement from his own ceaseless observation and many notes and memoranda than from any number of technical diagrams and technical explanations. Some of the greatest artists worked before textbooks were invented, and very likely could not have put into technical terms their own intimate knowledge of anatomy. The artist might even be needlessly bewildered by technical terms that have their importance for the scientific student. Mr. Lutz himself admits that, in the case of a certain muscular form, for instance, it is not necessary for the artist to memorize the names of the divisions. On the other hand, moments may come and occasions arise in the studio when a manual of facts is useful, and, as a reference book, Mr. Lutz's little volume may be recommended. It gives an excellent series of diagrams, it is written in as simple language as the subject permits, and it is supplied with a good index.

FRANKLY didactic, but with the test of successful performance certified for them, are the ten little dramas in F. Ursula Payne's "Plays for Anychild" (Harper; 75 cents net). Each one is related to a holiday, as New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Arbor Day, Graduation Day, and so on. The plays are diminutive moralities, with such characters as Itoldyouso, Conscience, Anymother, Patriotism, and the like. They are arranged for production on a school stage, in a parlor, or out-of-doors, by young people between the ages of eight and eighteen. Mainly for smaller folk is "Games for Children's Development," by Hilda A. Wrightson (New York: Prospect Press; $1.50), a collection of games and exercises for use by mothers and teachers of normal or sub-normal children with the object of developing control of the muscles and quickening the sense perceptions. One likes to see that the author's first rule is: "Every one of the exercises should be put before the child in a spirit of play." Most of the games and exercises are described within a page.

"PATRIOTIC Pageants of To-day" (Holt; $1 net) comprises four "patriotic festivals": "The Answer," "The Torch," and "When Liberty Calls," by Josephine Thorp, and "The Call to the Youth of America," by Rosamond Kimball. Most of the lines are blank verse, simple and dignified. There are detailed directions for costumes, staging, and the music, the last of which elements plays an unusually large part. In general, the pageants represent America rallying to the defence of freedom across the seas.

History and Biography

FOR young students of ancient history in our high schools and academies Miss Leslie W. Hopkinson, an accomplished teacher, has written "Greek Leaders" (Houghton Mifflin), a volume in a series edited by Professor W. S. Ferguson of Harvard University. Her object has been to supply collateral reading, in connection with historical instruction, in these short biographies of eleven Greeks, beginning with Solon and ending with Aratus. The chief value of the book lies in the light which it throws upon the methods of Grecian government. The ideal of Sparta, as long ago as the fourth century B. C., was the "utter subordination of the individual to the state, and absolute equality of condition and uniformity of education among citizens"; but the distinction of the Greeks, as a writer said two centuries later, was "that they were unfalteringly true to the two most unfailing expedients of equality and fraternity." Miss Hopkinson shows an unusually extensive knowledge of her subject and describes her heroes in an attractive literary style.

IN these days of rapid readjustment of historical values conservative notions about what ought to be included in any survey of the comparatively recent past are bound to be attacked with more than usual vigor. Politics and war, long the sole themes allowable by convention, have been overthrown by demands for a due consideration of what is interesting and significant to the general run of mankind. In his work on "The Expansion of Europe: A History of the Foundations of the Modern World," in two volumes (Holt; $6.50 net the set), Professor Wilbur Cortez Abbott has led a gallant onslaught upon these twin pillars of what are assumed to be the foundations of the modern world. In place of them, he has erected a structure of concept and

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treatment which, for the boldness and symmetry of its proportions and the strength and artistry of its composition, challenges attention, even if a close inspection of its contents lessens in a measure the general effect on the beholder. To Professor Abbott the term "expansion of Europe" means vastly more than the process of discovery and colonization which was so marked a feature of the period from the opening of the fifteenth to the close of the eighteenth century. It stands rather for the development of civilization within Europe itself as well as in the areas beyond the continent to which European influence was extended. The deeds of the men who ventured out upon strange waters and into strange lands, the acts of potentates and soldiers and statesmen, are indeed recorded, but in such a way as to make the actual life of the people, as the forerunner of the life of mankind in general in the nineteenth century, the really important thing to know. Throughout the book the author tries to emphasize the vital relation of what occurred in the past to the conditions of to-day. Within his chosen field (1415–1789) he has made available a general history of European civilization which is alike readable and instructive. Although published in the form of a textbook, the two volumes have little about them to repel readers who do not wish to be "schooled" in history. Their appeal, on the contrary, is to the reader of cultivated taste who wants to know how and why the present-day world came to be. A reader of this sort is hardly likely, however, to subscribe to certain arbitrary connections of European with non-European events, despite the ingenuity with which the junction has been effected; and he will wonder that so little precise information is given about the influence exercised by European civilization upon the lands and peoples whither it was borne. Equally in vain will he seek for a concrete appreciation of what the life and thought of Europe derived from their contact with the world beyond. These features of the work are fairly open to criticism. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that Professor Abbott has furnished one of the perquisites of a good history, namely, that it shall be *interesting!*

"THE Last Decade of European History and the Great War" (Ginn; 25 cents) is an excellent summary in seventy-five pages of the democratic and Socialistic trend in Europe before the war, and of the war itself down to the end of 1917. It is clear, simple, and accurate, and corrects some wrong notions, such as that "Bolsheviki" means anything more than "majority group" after the split in the Russian Socialist party. The split in the German Social Democratic party ought to be indicated (p. viii); and it is doubtful whether in the battle of Jutland the English lost "about twice as many ships and men as the Germans" (p. xlvii). This pamphlet is designed as a supplement to both Robinson and Beard's "The Development of Modern Europe" and to Professor Robinson's earlier "Introduction to the History of Western Europe." Much briefer and with less insight is the similar "Supplemental Chapter" (Ginn; 12 cents), which has been separately printed to accompany and bring down to date the revised edition of Myers's familiar "Mediæval and Modern European History."

"SUPERVISED Study in American History," by Mabel E. Simpson (Macmillan: $1.20), gives the practical experience of a teacher of American history in a Rochester junior high school. By "supervised study" Miss Simpson means that the work of the history course is done mainly by the pupils themselves, but under the constant supervision and direction of the teacher, instead of being done mainly by the teacher. It means the daily coöperation of pupil and teacher, not only in the acquisition of information, but also in the mechanical management of the recitations, in that the class chooses its own timekeepers, judges, and representatives. "It makes study seem like play," and at the same time trains the class in self-government, self-reliance, and self-expression. This volume of Miss Simpson's is the first of a "Supervised Study Series" under the editorship of Professor Alfred L. Hall-Quest, of the University of Cincinnati. The useful and practical suggestions which Miss Simpson makes for teachers of American history in secondary schools can be easily adapted by teachers of other fields of history. Like other pedagogical guides, however, it cannot be made a substitute for a good teacher, and enthusiasm for method ought not to be developed at the expense of accuracy and solid acquaintance with the subject-matter.

PROFESSOR W. M. WEST'S "History of the American People" (Allyn & Bacon) is not a mere revision of his well-known "American History and Government," but an essentially new work. This information is made easy for the pupil to acquire by its careful arrangement and the use of distinguishing varieties of type. Less space is given to political history and more to the social and industrial life of the people. The final chapter on America's part in the war is brief but excellent. Throughout the book there is an attractive undercurrent of optimism and healthy radicalism, and an appeal to maturity of thinking on the part of the high school students for whom the book is intended.

ALREADY textbooks in American history are revaluing our national development in the light of the Great War. In Professor A. B. Hart's excellent "School History of the United States" (American Book Company) the colored frontispiece represents an immigrant ship entering New York harbor, and throughout the book much attention is given to the various immigrant groups which have been fused together into the American nation. Professor Hart has also succeeded in bringing clearly before the minds of children the main features of the way our Government is carried on by simple descriptions of such things as nominating conventions, national banks, and the tariff. The numerous illustrations and maps are especially good.

IN the addresses and state papers by American statesmen and publicists, collected under the name "Liberty, Peace, and Justice," in the Riverside Literature Series (Houghton Mifflin; 32 cents net), we have material such as the historian of the world war will use when its permanent story shall be written. Among the authors are the President, the two ex-Presidents, the Secretary of State, and a former occupant of the latter Cabinet office. Very fittingly the Declaration of Independence and the Gettysburg Address of Lincoln are included. These represent public opinion, and in a sense are the source of public opinion, on momentous questions of the day. The union of the American Republics in a Pan-American League, protected by the principles of the Monroe Doctrine; the duties of the American citizen in the present crisis; the sacrifices which the war demands

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of our people, the nation representing an army at home co-operating with the military force at the front; the history of the League to Enforce Peace; the influence of pacifism; above all, the duty of the people to cease opposition when once national issues have been decided, are here considered. We see in these addresses, whose keynotes are Liberty, Peace, and Justice, a type of oratory which represents the contemporary American temperament, just as the oratory of the preliminary and early stages of the War of the Revolution and the Civil War shows the national character of those times. The collection will serve as an admirable influence for the schools of our country in the training for right citizenship, especially in history and civics classes.

"MY aim," says Wilbur F. Gordy in the preface to his "Abraham Lincoln" (Scribner; $1 net), "has been to make real to my young readers Abraham Lincoln; first as a youth . . . then as a man . . . and, finally, as a leader . . ." Of the success of this aim only youthful readers can actually judge, but the narrative is concrete without being a mere series of anecdotes, flows along smoothly, and is to be commended for its use of so many of Lincoln's words, spoken and written. The numerous pictures in the volume will not lessen its attractiveness. Not a few of them have the merit of being reproductions of famous photographs or paintings.

Social Science and Business

"AMERICAN Social Problems," described in a sub-title as "An Introduction to the Study of Society," by Henry Reed Burch and S. Howard Patterson (Macmillan; $1.20), is designed as an elementary textbook. It assembles a vast amount of information, organized into chapters preceded by an outline of topics and followed by questions for discussion, topics for special report, and references. Beginning with an outline of the theory of evolution and a summary of the achievements of the past, it traces the development of the family and of the state, and then plunges into the unsolved problems of our day—immigration, the city, industry, poverty, crime, prohibition, divorce, the school. Wise in attempting no ultimate solution of any of these, the authors have produced a volume that may be commended as making a fair and adequate presentation of them all.

"DESCRIPTION of Industry," by Henry C. Adams (Henry Holt & Company; $1.25 net), was designed by the authors as "a simple and yet a truthful description of the structure and life of the modern business world." Its general relation to the social sciences is indicated by the sub-title—"An Introduction to Economics." It has long been held by some economists that the beginner in economics fails to grasp the real significance of many of the principles on account of his lack of definite knowledge of the means and processes by which wealth is produced in the modern business world. This book supplies a goodly share of the information which is helpful to a proper and ready understanding of economic concepts and principles. There are fourteen chapters, in which are considered, in order, the nature of work; the classification of industries and the legal framework of industry; the factors of production; machinery, motive, and control in industry; the market; the laws of price; money and credit; systems of exchanges; sharing the product; business integration; and the relation of Government to industry. Some use is made of certain terms familiar to all students of economics, and it has been found necessary, at times, to make a brief explanation of matters usually discussed in treatises on economics. In addition to serving as an appropriate introduction to the study of economics, the book will doubtless fulfil an important function as a preliminary study to vocational instruction, and will find a ready use in the ever-increasing number of our schools providing training in the field of industry and commerce.

THE latest volume in the series consisting of the Barbara Weinstock lectures, delivered at the University of California, on the Morals of Trade, is entitled "Higher Education and Business Standards" (Houghton Mifflin; $1 net), by Willard Eugene Hotchkiss. There has been much talk about the connection between science and business, although hitherto the relation of the scientist to business has usually been that of a salaried expert whose results, but not whose methods, have influenced business practice. There is no doubt, however, that business is rapidly becoming more scientific because of the growing realization that our resources for wealth production are limited, and that economy of material and effort is necessary in turning raw products into finished goods. A constructive social policy which limits the utilization of materials and men in producing wealth has also emphasized the need of doing business in a scientific way. A strong movement in favor of so-called "scientific management" has accustomed business men to connect the words science and business. Finally, the universities of the country have recently undertaken to educate men for business through their departments of commerce and business administration. Since this last influence is probably the most permanent factor in developing scientific method in business, the author suggests that professional training for the future business executive should be based on a college course of from two to four years "in which the viewpoint and the varied methods of study in several diverse branches of knowledge had been thoroughly instilled." The student could then pass to the professional study of business through the more general to the more specialized studies within the business field. The essay is written in an easy and interesting style, and should appeal to present or prospective business men as well as to educators, especially those entrusted with the difficult task of outlining courses for the professional study of business.

A RECENT volume in Appleton's Commercial Education Series is entitled "The Law of Commercial Paper" ($2), by William Underhill Moore. The book was not designed for the specialist, for nowadays a knowledge of the correct use of commercial paper is desirable not only for the lawyer or the captain of finance, but also for the business man regardless of the phase of industrial or commercial activity in which he may be engaged. The author has attempted to set forth the information simply so that it may be understood by those not conversant with legal phraseology. In addition to performing the function of instructing business men in an important subject of every-day practice, the book should have a wide use in schools of commerce and finance where commercial law is a part of the curriculum. The volume was prepared in the extension division of the University of Wisconsin, and is edited by J. B. Read.

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Natural Science

GENERAL

THE revised edition of Caldwell and Eikenberry's "Elements of General Science" (Ginn) has been enlarged and almost entirely rewritten. Some entirely new chapters, such as those on electricity and astronomical bodies, have also been added. The general treatment, however, remains unchanged. The thirty-three chapters deal with six general topics: the air, water and its use, work, energy and electricity, the earth in relation to other astronomical bodies, the earth's currents, and life on the earth. As a first-year textbook for high-school classes the book has also proved itself worth while. Its concise treatment, its admirable literary form, and the careful selection of the most interesting and stimulating phases of each of the subjects with which it deals, make it also readable and informing for persons who have long passed either the high school or the college years.

NAVIGATION

WITH the great increase in America's fleet of ships and the need of men to run them, schools of navigation are needed and will doubtless multiply rapidly in a short time. Of the textbooks on the subject, new or in revised editions, "Elements of Navigation" (Harper; $1.25 net), by William J. Henderson, revised and practically rewritten to meet present needs, is a standard. It contains a vast amount of information in a very small space.

FRANK SEYMOUR HASTINGS has devoted his entire book, "Modern Navigation by Sumner-St. Hilaire Method" (Appleton; 75 cents net), to a subject which Mr. Henderson has treated in one chapter. There is much that is interesting in the work, but it treats of only one part of the education of a navigator.

PHYSICS

IN "The Men on Deck" (Van Nostrand; $3 net) Felix Riesenberg has furnished a valuable amount of information regarding the duties of master, mates, and crew. In this volume the author embodies the navigation laws, the rules of the road, and, in fact, has produced a veritable encyclopædia of the sea.

A CERTAIN spiciness is to be expected in the products of Professors W. S. Franklin and Barry MacNutt; their latest book, "A Calendar of Leading Experiments in Physics" (South Bethlehem, Pa.: Franklin, MacNutt & Charles; $2.50), is no exception. The foreword prepares the reader for what is to follow by the well-aimed shot that, while the authors consider teaching to be the greatest of fun, they have never been helped by anything they have read concerning their profession. A reviewer of textbooks, it may be remarked, sometimes falls into the same humor. The Calendar is presented to the public as a modern descendant of Francis Bacon. It describes a set of experiments that lecturers may use as illustrations for the laws of physics. It ought to be a boon to a teacher. The experiments are interesting in themselves, and are likely to make students think in order to connect them with the laws which they exemplify. The authors explain how apparatus is to be made and how the experiments are to be performed. Lest dulness should intrude, caustic interpolations are inserted; they are worth noting, especially by teachers of mathematics and engineering, who particularly irritate Professor Franklin.

GINN & CO. are publishing an "Everyday Physics Laboratory Manual" ($1 net), by John C. Packard, science master in the Brookline High School. The method followed is that of mixing with standard experiments a certain number of practical applications. The best feature of the manual is the interesting selection of side problems and topics for individual study.

CHEMISTRY

"WHENEVER an instructor uses a text written by some one else, he faces the dilemma that a departure from the order and manner of presentation of the printed text results in the loss of much of its value to the student, whereas a close adherence to it, on the other hand, interferes with the freedom and individuality, and hence with the enthusiasm and effectiveness of the teacher. Nor can the instructor altogether avoid this dilemma by writing his own book, as probably every one is tempted to do, for the use of any text tends to end the period of experimentation upon the class, and to substitute therefor year after year of complacent stereotyped repetition." This is an extract from the preface of "Principles of Chemistry," by Professor Joel H. Hildebrand, of the University of California (Macmillan; $1.75). Assuming the validity of these statements, the logical escape from the dilemma would appear to be the discarding of the textbook altogether; but the author's solution of the difficulty is the separation of the matter of the usual textbook into two volumes, one containing purely descriptive matter, the other a discussion of the fundamental laws and principles, for the purpose of gaining maximum flexibility in the choice of points at which principles shall be discussed and of material for their illustration and application. Since the descriptive material is available in so many existing books, the author has prepared this exposition of "Principles" to be used in connection with descriptive texts on the reference shelves. The treatment is direct, clear, readable, and altogether satisfactory. All teachers of chemistry who are seeking to improve their methods of presentation will find it suggestive and interesting; and if they do not adopt the scheme of instruction for which it is designed, they will probably be influenced by it none the less in their teaching. The book will undoubtedly prove useful in connection with advanced courses in inorganic chemistry and in introductory courses in physical chemistry.

IN his preface to "Essentials of Modern Chemistry" (Holt; $1.40), the author, C. E. Dull, gives among his reasons for believing that "there is a field for another textbook in chemistry," the stimulation of the study of chemistry by the war, the multiplication of chemical manufactures, and the increasingly important position that chemical industries will probably occupy after the war. These reasons seem to the reviewer to lack cogency; for the field for elementary textbooks on chemistry is well occupied,

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and there are some excellent books which hit the target at which Mr. Dull aims, namely, "to make the book practical and to show the relation of chemistry to daily life without neglecting the fundamental principles upon which the science is based." It really does not seem worth while to have added another book that gives the same material in very much the same way, although the compilation shows careful and commendable industry.

IN "Edible Oils and Fats" (Longmans, Green; $2 net), by C. A. Mitchell, a volume in the series of monographs on industrial chemistry edited by Sir Edward Thorpe, we have in 123 pages a succinct outline of the chemical composition and properties of the more important oils and fats, together with a description of the methods of their extraction, purification, and preparation for food purposes. The principles of well-known analytical methods for the examination of edible oils are also described. Two brief chapters at the end of the book treat of hardened or hydrogenated oils and of margarine. Four full-page photo-engravings of machinery employed in the extraction and purification are given, and a few cuts of apparatus used in analysis. An excellent bibliography of twenty-eight pages completes the book. This volume will find a welcome place in chemical libraries for its competent and up-to-date summary of the subject, and expert oil chemists will probably find the descriptions of the more recent methods of service.

WITH the discovery in 1760 of a fuming, spontaneously inflammable liquid obtained by the distillation of white arsenic and potassium acetate (Cadet's liquid) began the history of the organic compounds of arsenic. Successive generations of chemists have examined these compounds, and the results of their researches have played an important part in the establishment of chemical theory, and have given us in the later years several drugs of great physiological potency and importance, the best known of which is salvarsan, Ehrlich's famous "606." An account, historical and chemical, of these and some related substances is given in "Organic Compounds of Arsenic and Antimony," by Professor Gilbert T. Morgan (Longmans, Green; $4.80 net). The amount of research devoted to these substances is indicated by the fact that the 350 pages of this large-page volume contain only "a liberal selection . . . comprising those substances having either a practical application or some aspect of theoretical interest." A bibliography of the most important researches and treatises down to the end of 1917 fills ten pages, and in it we notice the name of the author in six entries dating from 1908 to 1914.

TNT has become generally familiar as the abbreviation or symbol of one of the most efficient explosives that has figured in the war. The same substance is known in English specifications and literature as Trotyl," while the French call it "Tolite." In a small book of 120 pages entitled "TNT and Other Nitrotoluenes" (Van Nostrand; $2 net), Mr. G. Carlton Smith gives an account of the manufacture of TNT, its purification and testing, and a brief discussion of TNT diseases. The book also contains a chapter on the history of the nitration of toluene, and one on accidents in TNT plants. In this last it is stated that "TNT is considered the safest explosive that has ever found a wide application in warfare."

ZOÖLOGY

THE special appeal which William A. Locy's "In the Main Currents of Zoölogy" (Holt) makes is to the real desire which many of us have to know something about the man whose labors have made zoölogy what it is to-day. The book starts off badly. The author himself confesses that "the bewildering number of details makes it difficult to deal with them clearly and coherently," and that "the attempt to unite them into a coördinate whole runs the risk of becoming merely discursive." On the whole, however, the treatment is commendable. The basis of the work is a discussion of what the author regards as the five outstanding biographical advances of the nineteenth century, namely, the discovery of protoplasm, the formulation of the cell theory, the establishment of the doctrine of organic evolution, the rise of bacteriology, and the experimental study of heredity. A dozen chapters follow, dealing with such varied topics as the rise of embryology, Linnæus, Cuvier, insects, painless surgery, and the ten foremost men in the history of zoölogy as a science. The résumé of present knowledge of prehistoric man and the account of the part played by insects in disease are particularly concise and lucid. The bibliography, unfortunately, is not up to the standard of the rest of the book.

GEOGRAPHY

A BRAND-NEW addition to the popular series prepared by Miss Nellie B. Allen entitled "Geographical and Industrial Studies" is "South America" (Ginn; 80 cents), the fourth volume. There are nineteen chapters in which the writer portrays to the reader in a most interesting manner the life conditions of the peoples in the South American continent, the leading facts in the geography of the different countries, and the resources, industry, and commerce of the various republics. In this way, the actual life of the people is portrayed in the setting of an environment strikingly unlike that of the North American child. The book is excellently adapted for supplementary reading in geography for children in the grades, although there is much of interest to children of more advanced years. There is indeed much more than geography for the child to absorb; the whole national life of the South American peoples is described and explained, through national industries, based upon natural resources, and through commerce, in a way which cannot fail to leave a clear and lasting impression upon the mind of the young reader. And, in view of the growing interest of the people of this country in the affairs of our neighbors to the south of us, it is well for children of the present generation to acquire while at school a broad and definite knowledge of South American conditions and life. The text is liberally illustrated with new and unusual photographs which add greatly to the ease of understanding the facts, and there are seven full-page maps, so that the use of an atlas may be dispensed with. At the close of the chapters there are lists of well-chosen topics for further study, and at the end of the volume there is a list of questions for general review. An important feature of the work which cannot fail to be of great assistance to teacher and student alike is the pronouncing vocabulary in connection with the index. On the whole, the volume is an important contribution to the elementary literature on South America and is deserving of wide use in the schools.

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